# The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 21, 1905.

## The Week.

If President Roosevelt has yielded to the Czar the initiative in convening the Hague Conference again, it is an act at once graceful and full of tact. All that the President promised the Inter-Parliamentary Union last year was that he would take steps to have the Conference summoned. If that is now done by its begetter, every one will be satisfied; and the President will have done something to disabuse the universe of the suspicion that he means to set up as its care-taker. Under whatever prompting brought together again, it is certain that the Hague Conference will be the scene of fruitful labors in the cause of humanity. War has been made to appear not less, but more, barbarous and wicked by what has taken place since the first Peace Conference at The Hague. Several of the participating nations will come in chastened spirit; and all should be ready to do something not only to mitigate the atrocities of war, but to make it seem more and more heathenish and impossible.

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That seems a peculiar arrangement by which the Civil Service Commission is to bring it about that negroes in the South are "voluntarily" to relinquish clerkships in post-offices which they "will not be allowed to hold." Having investigated several cases in which black clerks had been forced to resign, sometimes by maltreatment, the agent of the Commission found that "the negroes have been made to know" that they cannot retain such positions. But the objection to them as mail-carriers is not so strong; consequently, if those who pass the examinations will only signify that they prefer to act as carriers, not as clerks, there will be "no discrimination against an eligible because of his color." Well, if negro or white man could not reason better than that, he ought not to be an eligible for any position where common sense is required. All you have to do, it seems to be thought, is to make "voluntarily" mean "compulsorily," and the problem is solved. And, of course, when Southern sentiment rises to the point of forbidding black men to be carriers, some equally fine verbal shift will be invented to explain away the discrimination. This is the strangest version of the square deal that we have yet encountered. Compel a man to accept a crooked deal, and that makes it square.

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An issue of tremendous importance has arisen in the campaign now being conducted by Hoke Smith and Clark Howell for the nomination for Governor of Georgia: Did Hoke Smith, while Secretary of the Interior under Cleveland, appoint negroes to office? This live and even burning question has been discussed in the columns of rival Atlanta newspapers controlled by the candidates, and the impression is given that the State is convulsed over it. The *Constitution* presses Clark Howell's charge that, under the Hoke Smith régime, two of Bishop Turner's sons were appointed to places in the Interior Department, one as clerk at a salary of $1,000 a year, and the other as an assistant messenger in the Pension Office at $720 a year. Another negro, Mick Mitchell, it is charged, enjoyed a $900 clerkship by reason of Mr. Smith's tolerance. To emphasize its point, the *Constitution* compares the princely salaries of the Turner boys and Mitchell with the $600 clerkship given to Peter J. Williams, a white man and the son of a Confederate veteran. Now what has Hoke Smith to say about that? His newspaper, the Atlanta *Journal*, hotly replies that both Mitchell and the $1,000-a-year Turner boy were already in the Interior Department, "under the civil-service blanket," before Smith entered Cleveland's Cabinet. Those negroes whom he did appoint, he declares, were given "menial positions" only. The question whether the appointees were efficient seems not to have arisen. Smith's condemnation or vindication rests upon the disposal of the charge that he actually recognized negroes as human beings.

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On September 13, "Governors' Day," at the State Fair at Concord, Gov. Glenn of North Carolina told the people of New Hampshire that the only thing the South denies the negro is social equality. That is denied, he says, "because we believe that God made the whites a superior race to any other." Judge Kittrell of the Texas Supreme Court, speaking for Gov. Lanham, invited the people of New England to go out and help Texas to realize her splendid destiny. He said reassuringly: "The law is as well enforced there as it is in New Hampshire. I say to you that the blackest negro that ever crept from a prisoner's cell to a prisoner's dock can get as fair a trial as the whitest man in New Hampshire." Those who deny that negroes are given a "square deal," Judge Kittrell declared hotly, are "slanderers of the courts and people of a great State." As "Governors' Day" rhetoric, these statements are impressive, but as attempts to summarize the facts, they are not convincing. The New York *Age* says that, since July 1 of this year, seventeen lynchings have been recorded in the South. It quotes from a Dallas account of the burning, near Howard, Texas, on September 7, of Steve Aaron, a negro charged with the "usual crime": "The mob was so strong that it did not fear the local officers, and the isolated location, off the railroad line, made it comparatively free from molestation by State troops, if any should be ordered out."

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There was an unhappy, far-off time when Senator Lodge did not believe in ship subsidies. He confessed as much in his speech at Peabody, Mass., on September 13. But he went on to tell the reason of his conversion in terms that must indeed have thrilled his audience. The Senator—to his great credit be it said—is one of the few Republicans with the courage to utter the word "subsidy." That there has been a prejudice against the word and the thing signified he acknowledges, and owns that it was this prejudice which made him think subsidy legislation impossible. But he has made a discovery which changes the face of the question completely. It is not too much to say that every one on whom the same light dawns will at once become a subsidy advocate. To carry out the policies he favors, the Senator says, would cost $4,000,000 a year. "But the best of it is," he adds with an unwonted burst of enthusiasm, "that we could provide for it all without a cent of new taxes on the American people." By this he means that the expense will be defrayed by a shuffling of port and light charges. It did seem as if the American consumer, who for more than fifty years, as the protectionist tells us, had not had to pay a penny for the support of our Government, might have been glad to assume this modest sum out of sheer patriotism. But no, the uncomplaining foreigner, who has grown accustomed to paying the entire tariff revenues of our Government, is to shoulder this new burden too.

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A miracle, from the point of view of devout standpatters, has been openly wrought. Republican petitioners for reciprocity have at last demanded, not only that the duties on their raw materials be abolished, but that the rates on their manufactured goods be cut down. The Massachusetts committee of one hundred are advocating a plank in the platform of the coming State convention of the Republican party, calling for the placing of hides, coal, iron ore, lumber, and wood pulp on the free list, and also for a reduction in "duties upon manufactured and other articles." This will frighten Lodge and his machine as much as it enrages the Home Market Club. But it is a sort of "millennial sign," to be added to those which

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Dr. Holmes enumerated. Representative McCleary said the other day that he never expected to live to see any tariff revisionist admitting that his own pet duty was too high. The sight of these Massachusetts reciprocity men, ready to have their own tariff favors cut off, must make him feel like singing his *nunc dimittis*.

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The reason why Germany is not more seriously alarmed by our Government's intention to develop for ourselves the South American trade is apparent from the very phraseology in which this great movement is announced. "The authorities at Washington," we are told, "mean to go forward 'full steam ahead' to capture" the markets to the south. The thing is talked about as if the Secretary of State were preparing in his own person to make shipments of canned roast beef, and the Chief of the Consular Bureau to do up calicoes for the sub-tropical trade. But the "authorities at Washington" have nothing to sell, and all their "activity" can accomplish is to collect information about South American opportunities, and try to induce individual manufacturers and merchants at home to take advantage of them. Now adaptation of methods to the preferences of foreign consumers has never been in the past a strong point of our manufacturers. Every batch of Consular Reports contains evidence of this. Our agent abroad finds out that particular goods for a particular place must, to be salable, be prepared or packed in some particular way. But the manufacturers frequently go on sending their goods to this spot of queer foreign tastes in the dress that suits Decatur, Ill. Perhaps an assiduously cultivated worship of the "home market" has had something to do with this. Certain it is that, while alert and enterprising business men may work up a foreign trade for themselves without help from their Government, the Government's own energy can accomplish nothing unless the commercial interests are prompt to accept the chances it obtains for them. As the German commercial bodies point out in the case of Cuba, even the discrimination in favor of American imports there has not decreased the sale of German goods. Other nations have actually made larger sales to the Cubans since the action which was to transfer this business bodily to our hands.

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It has been some time since the fur-seal appeared as an international issue of importance, but, according to the news from Washington, that interesting creature is likely soon to enjoy its old prominence. Under the present agreement between this country and England, Americans may take male seals on the Pribyloff Islands under certain restrictions. All sealing operations are prohibited within a zone of sixty miles about those islands, but a large fleet of Canadian vessels engages every year in extremely profitable pelagic sealing outside the protected zone when the seals come to the rookeries in the spring. The seals killed at sea are largely females, and thus, as this country has always contended, the continuance of pelagic sealing threatens the very existence of the herd. On the other side of the Pacific a very similar situation exists, the seals which breed on islands owned by Russia being taken by the Japanese in waters further south, though without such an agreement as that between England and the United States. It is a fact which hardly needs statistical verification, though this is abundant, that, as pelagic sealing has grown more profitable, sealing on land has declined. If, as is reported, the end of the war in the East is to be made the occasion for negotiations between these four nations for a sealing agreement, there is likely to be a protracted debate. The nations which own seal rookeries assert, with scientific testimony to back them, that the carefully regulated killing of "bachelor seals" is the only form of sealing that does not menace the existence of the species. But before consenting to the entire prohibition of pelagic sealing, the countries now engaged in that industry are likely to insist on participation in the sealing operations on land.

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The completion of the revision of United States statutes, begun four years ago, has naturally drawn attention to the many slovenly, ambiguous, and nugatory provisions which can be pointed out in the statutes at large by any one in the habit of searching those entertaining volumes. The publishers of a compilation of these statutes a few years ago observed in their preface that "the complexity of bills passed was too much even for members of Congress itself to unravel. We have come upon amendments to laws that have been repealed, amendments that overlook previous amendments, new laws reënacting existing and forgotten laws, etc." The story is told that Mr. Botkin, chairman of the commission now finishing its work, promised his colleagues an oyster supper if they could discover from the statute-book what was the legal rate of pay of a cook in the corps of engineers, and they, after many days of searching, were compelled to give it up as hopeless. The purpose of the revision, of course, is to bring the whole body of Federal laws into consistent and perspicuous form. But, once this is done, as it should be by the next Congress, the need of keeping the laws in the same orderly condition ought to be considered.

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Mr. Everett Colby's rout of the Essex County (New Jersey) bosses, backed by rapacious corporations—a rout so complete that it left them dazed—is a political event of uncommon significance? A corrupt and tyrannical machine, believing itself all-powerful, was directly challenged, and was blown away like tissue paper by the popular vote. The smashing defeat of Major Lentz is a long score for the new primary law. Under the old plan of stuffing caucuses and putting through a slate, Lentz would have beaten Colby easily. It was the opportunity for a wider appeal to the voters which wrecked the machine. The New Jersey law in force for the first time this fall is not, to be sure, a direct primary law. But, in the case under consideration, as occasionally happens, the voters of the party were offered a fair count and a practical choice of candidates, which amounted to the same thing. Nevertheless, the method should not be thought of as a cure-all for our political ills. It is a contrivance which the bosses will learn to work in time, if the citizenship is neglectful, as skilfully as they do other parts of the electoral machinery. Indeed, but for Mr. Colby's remarkable appeal, sustained through a long and vigorous campaign, he could not have won even under the new law. The latter simply gave personality and a sound issue a chance to make themselves felt. No political system can save a people that fails in its political duty, just as none can really prevent an aroused and determined electorate from eventually having its way.

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The State Democratic Executive Committee of Tennessee, at a meeting in Nashville last Saturday, resolved: "That on Saturday, the 12th day of May, 1906, between the hours designated for regular elections, the polls shall be open at each of the usual polling-places in all the counties of Tennessee, for the purpose of holding a direct primary election to select the nominee of the Democratic party of Tennessee for United States Senator, for the term beginning March 4, 1907, and ending March 4, 1913." This is the latest extension of the primary principle to the selection of candidates for Federal office, following closely upon the Virginia experiment. Tennessee had already legalized the primary as applied to State elections, but had balked at authorizing it in the case of an election of a Senator or Representative. The State Committee's action, therefore, is to become effective only because Senator Carmack and ex-Gov. Taylor, the rival candidates before the Legislature of 1906, have agreed to abide by the result of the primary, and the Democratic county committees are unanimous in deciding to conduct the test in May. Somewhat inconsistently, the State Committee rejected the proposal to submit the question of choosing a candidate for

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Governor by a direct primary vote. The State will, therefore, have an excellent opportunity to contrast the primary and convention methods, for the Gubernatorial convention will occur three weeks after the Senatorial primary of May 12.

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The anti-pass fight is on in earnest in Nebraska. Following the action of the Republican State Convention of Thursday in declaring against the railway pass, Gov. Mickey and two other State officials have given up their passes, and announced that hereafter they will pay their own fare. Even United States Senator Elmer J. Burkett spends good money for a ticket to Washington. "The will of the convention," says the Attorney-General sententiously, "is law to me. Now that the convention has spoken, a Republican can do nothing but surrender his passes." To the man up a tree it would seem as if the proprieties of the case are exactly what they were before the oracles of the Republican convention spoke. The question is a very simple one: Should a State officer, who may be called upon to decide matters of vital interest to the railways, accept favors from them? To put the question is to answer it. Sane men can hold but one opinion on this subject. The railways are not giving away their passes for nothing. In the long run they find their advantage in securing the good will of men in place and power. In the meantime we shall be interested to learn whether loyal Republican editors likewise accept the verdict of the convention. Will these great tribunes of the people also guard against any secret and subtle bias toward benevolent corporations; or are they sure that their minds are so soldered in virtue that nothing can swerve them from their devotion to the commonwealth?

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A bust of Thomas Paine was last week set up in Independence Hall, Philadelphia. It was, according to the *Ledger*, presented to the city in 1876, but, because of the prejudices against Paine, was refused. At the end of nearly thirty years it is again offered and accepted. That these three decades have witnessed a distinct change in the common estimate of Paine is not to be doubted. The city fathers of 1876 must have recalled that in their boyhood the name of Tom Paine was a bogey to the orthodox. Through the first half of that century everybody who went to church was accustomed to hear Paine thundered at from the pulpit. "Give us more of them awful deathbeds of Voltaire and Tom Paine," said the old trustees to the young Methodist minister in 'Theron Ware.' With the disappearance of Paine as a popular critic of the Bible, and with the growth of toleration, men are able to make a juster appraisal of his worth. As a writer he merits more honor than he is generally awarded. His style is not that of the scholar, but it has the far higher qualities of energy and directness; it is full of pithy and quotable phrases. Unrestrained enthusiasts have held that the pen which wrote 'Common Sense' and 'The Crisis' was as potent an aid to the Americans as the sword of Washington. As a political philosopher, Paine made important contributions to the theories embodied in the framework of our republic. He is, says Leslie Stephen, "the only English writer who expresses with uncompromising sharpness the abstract doctrine of political rights held by the French Revolutionists. His relation to the American struggle and afterwards to the Revolution of 1789 gave him a unique position, and his writings became the sacred books of the extreme radical party in England." Paine clearly deserves a high place in our national pantheon.

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On Wednesday week, Frederic Cromwell, treasurer of the Mutual Life, declared with much emphasis that in these days membership in syndicates is a necessity. Time was, twenty years ago, when the income of the Mutual was small and the company "could buy from bond-dealers and pay the broker's profits"; but now the company must go into syndicates in order to get satisfactory investments, "get them in sufficient size and at 'ground-floor' prices." "I go so far as to say," added Mr. Cromwell, "that unless we went into the syndicates, we should not be able to invest our funds." The only difficulty with this lucid and plausible exposition is that a syndicate is formed, not for the purpose of buying bonds, but of marketing them. Capitalists unite to "float" an issue of Government, railway, or industrial securities, and they are expected to "stay in" till this end is accomplished. Indeed, Mr. Cromwell himself testified that when the Mutual backed Speyer & Co. to the extent of $5,000,000 in obtaining $35,000,000 of Cuban bonds at 89, it did not withdraw its share of the bonds and lock them up in its vaults. On the contrary, it went into a second syndicate which took over $20,000,000 of the bonds at 91. The Mutual understood when it entered the original syndicate that it was not to withdraw any of the bonds which it had underwritten. Then, too, the Mutual did not join the "Pennsylvania 3½ convertible bond" syndicate for the purpose of securing "ground-floor" prices. The company, as a stockholder in the Pennsylvania Railroad, was entitled to $1,666,000 of the bonds at par, but did not care to avail itself of that chance. The Mutual put $1,500,000 into a syndicate which bought "Southern Pacific first refunding 4s" at 93½, but the Mutual itself bought $3,000,000 of the bonds at the public offering at 97, less the commission. Other syndicate operations were similar in character.

Policyholders of the New York Life now know that on December 31, 1903, the company sold $800,000 of International Mercantile Marine bonds to J. P. Morgan and Company, and on January 2, 1904, took them back again. The transaction was managed by George W. Perkins, a partner of the banking firm and also vice-president of the New York Life and chairman of its finance committee. The object of this feat of financial legerdemain was, as Edmund D. Randolph, treasurer of the insurance company, admitted, to show in the annual report only $3,200,000 of International Mercantile Marine—a bad investment—whereas the company actually had $4,000,000. The chief use of an annual report in a mutual company like the New York Life is to let the policyholders know exactly how their affairs are being managed. "Frankness" is, according to President John A. McCall, the admirable motto of his administration. "The New York Life," says a recent circular, "has for years believed in and advocated publicity." In the shift of $800,000 just mentioned there was neither frankness nor publicity. The policyholders, the agents in the field, and perhaps some of the officers in New York, were deliberately misled as to the actual condition of the investment.

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An article by M. Brunetière on "Les Mensonges du Pacificisme" has caused animated discussion in France. His criticism of those who advocate peace and disarmament has called forth replies from M. Passy and from the French Senator, D'Estournelles. The title of M. Brunetière's paper was probably even more provocative than were his specific objections to the peace policy of the international committee. The answers of his opponents are, it must be admitted, rather disappointing, for they virtually concede some essential points of M. Brunetière's original argument. If it had come from a less clever writer, it would deserve but little notice. After accusing the advocates of "pacificisme" of cowardice, he tries to prove that disarmament in Europe would be inexpedient, chiefly for reasons of social economy. National industries, he thinks, are helped by the continuance of standing armies which require supplies of many different kinds, and thus give employment to a large part of the population. As for war, it is a national safety-valve. It has a great and good influence upon the individual character, inspiring courage and affording an opportunity of moral self-realization. With every advance of the military art, new orders go to the factories, and, in the event of war, the food market is abnormally active. But the manufacture of ploughshares and pruning-hooks ought to be quite as profitable, if so many men were not engaged in military service.

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### *INSURANCE AND POLITICS.*

What close observers have long been morally convinced of, is now proved to be the fact. The great life-insurance companies have been in politics. They have given blackmail or bribes to party machines. Mr. George W. Perkins testified on Friday that the New York Life had contributed at least three times to the Republican national campaign fund. Last year it gave nearly $50,000 to promote the election of Mr. Roosevelt.

To the President, this must have come as a shocking piece of news. If he had really known what his agents were doing, he could not have displayed such heat as he did in his reply to Judge Parker, on November 4, 1904. He then declared it to be "a wicked falsehood," and an accusation which "if true would brand both Mr. Cortelyou and me with infamy," that contributions had been extorted from corporations to aid in his election. Of course, President Roosevelt was careful to use such words as "blackmail," and a "promise" of "future immunities"; but every one knows what gentlemanly blackmailers go about before elections. They weep and deeply sympathize, like the walrus, as they sort out the corporations of the largest size, but the latter understand sufficiently why it is that they are asked to make a campaign contribution. And as for a "promise," a really high-toned management would be ashamed to demand so vulgar a thing. A wink is as good as a bond between the bearer and the filler of the campaign bag. No; Friday's revelations will go far to convince plain men that Judge Parker spoke but the truth when he said that the large corporations were contributing heavily to President Roosevelt's election.

Judge Parker is justly entitled to rub salt into the Republican wounds. The open confession that the New York Life financed the campaign against him last year gave him his opportunity, and he rose to it on Monday last in admirable temper. He did not profess that his party possessed superior virtue in the matter of accepting funds from corporations, but only maintained (and the evidence certainly supports him) that the big corporation checks went to the Republicans. The Judge does not point out, what he no doubt observed, the care that was taken to conceal the transaction. Not until a month after the election was the New York Life check drawn. Mr. Perkins advanced the money personally, to be repaid later. Now suppose that, on the eve of the election, Judge Parker had specifically accused the New York Life of giving trust funds to elect Mr. Roosevelt; President McCall could have made a solemn affidavit that not a cent had been paid—"Come and examine our check-book." The contribution was both illegal and craftily planned to be beyond detection.

But Judge Parker's statement is more than a pointing to his own justification. It contains weighty and timely words on the great evil of corporation money in politics. Nothing can be more to the point than his fine repudiation of the alleged "Democratic faith" of President McCall, advanced in extenuation by Mr. Perkins. "Men like McCall," he remarks, "have no political convictions that stand in the way of their personal advantage. Such men desire the triumph of that party which will better serve their personal financial interests." We all know the type. It has been familiar since Jay Gould's day. Among a certain class of financiers, political differences vanish at the dollar's edge. They are Democrats or Republicans for revenue only. In a case in the South Wales Circuit, the leading counsel identified himself with local interests. "Come, come," said the judge, "you cannot make yourself out to be a Welshman." "But I have made a good deal of money out of Welshmen in my time." "Well, well," rejoined the Judge, "we may call you a Welshman by extraction." There are Democrats and "acting Republicans" in plenty of that lineage. Strictly speaking, however, they no more deserve to be called party men than do those Philadelphia thieves whom Secretary Root denounced for daring to assume the name "Republican."

Everybody knows that life-insurance companies and other corporations do not underwrite political parties without expecting a profit. Their motto is strictly, *do ut des*. The kind of reward they count upon is well described by Judge Parker. Having bought "control" of a party, they intend to use it for their own benefit. They doubtless supposed that they had securely purchased the Republican party last year. President Roosevelt has done much to show that he, at least, was not privy to that bargain. In many respects, it is certain, the corporations do not look upon him as their best friend. But there is one particular in which the President has, thus far, laid himself open to suspicion. Judge Parker asserts that one purpose of the contributions made by corporations to the Republican party was to retain "permission to manufacturing corporations to levy tribute on the people." In other words, a syndicate of stand-patters was at work. Now, what are the suggestive facts? In his letter of acceptance President Roosevelt turned his back on his former tariff utterances, and posed as the best stand-patter of the lot. After election, he began again to talk tariff revision earnestly—in private. It was known, for the fact has been published, that he intended to send a special tariff message to Congress; but he was somehow diverted from his purpose. Republican tariff revision was slaughtered in the house of its friends. The question now is whether President Roosevelt will consent to lie under the malign implication which many have seen in this course. He has it in his power to make a more complete answer to Judge Parker than he made last November. Let him indignantly brush away all these rumors of a stand-patter purchase, by coming out squarely for tariff reform, and urging it with every argument and influence at his command. In that way he can at once put his detractors to confusion and rejoice his friends.

We may yet distil goodness out of this evil thing if we follow up these revelations of corporate bribery in politics by drastic legislation making every act of the kind criminal. The penal code is your great purifier. Let every director or officer be made to know that if, directly or indirectly, he gives or allows to be given one dollar of the funds of his corporation to a politician, or the agent of one, the jail will yawn for him. Let the terror of the law be held also over the head of campaign committees and their solicitors. By both State and Federal statute, let the practice of either soliciting or giving corporation money for partisan purposes be so outlawed that the director who is besought will feel that he is invited to commit a crime, while the party treasurer who is seen going to interview financial magnates will be regarded, even though he be the most respectable of whited sepulchres, as no better than a sneak thief.

### *"ADMINISTRATIVE ADMINISTRATION."*

"You must know that we old residents of Washington regard this as the best administrative Administration we have ever seen." The foregoing is an extract from a letter of one veteran Republican to another. It was written, however, in 1888, and referred to the Administration, not of Theodore Roosevelt, but of Grover Cleveland. What the writer would say of the succession of scandals which have broken out in one department of the Government after another; of the discoveries of lurking graft in corner after corner; of the general suspicion, uneasiness, and fear permeating and demoralizing the whole service, we do not know, but we are sure he would not call them signs of good administrative administration.

The phrase is suggestive. As originally applied, it provokes comparisons not wholly unfavorable to Mr. Cleveland. His first term was singularly free from administrative scandals. Attorney-General Garland's connection with the Pan-electric promotion is about all that sticks in the average man's memory; and Loomis and Paul Morton have since made that affair look like a laughable peccadillo. On the whole, Mr. Cleveland succeeded in infusing into the Government service an admirable spirit of industry and economy. He speedily made

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himself known as "the business man from Buffalo." He himself set the example of unflagging labor. No President before or since can have surpassed his almost cruel devotion to his work. And he had able executives—not ornamental phantoms—about him in his Cabinet. From him and them the spirit of quiet application and fidelity spread out and down. "Let them attend to their work," said Mr. Cleveland when only President-elect, upon the report that the clerks at Washington were restless and apprehensive; and "Let them attend to their work" was his motto all through. There was nothing clamorous, nothing galvanic, nothing of the self-advertising in the conduct of public business during those four years; but there was a steady discharge of duty, and an increasing command of popular confidence, which are of the essence of good administration.

Now how has it happened that we have seen such a lamentable change under a President who is personally as honest as the sun, and who hates an official rogue almost as heartily as he does his imaginary weakling? Why have these repeated shocks come to the people—frauds following upon frauds—so seriously impairing their belief in the purity of the Government, and leading them to say in their haste that all public servants are grafters? Personal blame attaching to Mr. Roosevelt must be of the smallest. His clear rectitude of general purpose cannot be challenged. It is true that he has been a little careless in finding or making offices, or "jobs," for some of his personal friends. Open spoilsmen shelter themselves behind these unfortnate examples of his. It might also be argued that his whirlwind methods are not good for the satisfactory dispatch of business, and are a bad model for his subordinates. But all these things can account for but a trifling part of the governmental delinquencies which have been overcoming us like a summer cloud, to the special wonder of nobody, we presume, more than of Mr. Roosevelt. The insidious corruption has intrenched itself in the public service not because but in spite of his being President. He should be the first to inquire what its real causes are, since he himself is conscious of innocence.

If he did inquire deliberately and dispassionately we think he would discover ample reasons why the past eight years of Republican rule have borne the fruit of which we all find the taste so unpleasant. In the first place, there was a change from the policy of economy to the policy of lavishness. President Cleveland both preached and practised the homely virtue of saving. So far as he could by recommendation and veto, he kept expenses down; so that the Government, under him, was actually run for less money, though the population expanded—that facile excuse for extravagance. But with the incoming of the Republicans, the whole temper was changed. "God help the surplus," became the popular cry. "This is a billion-dollar country." We had much goods laid up for many years, like the other rich fool. Now such a spirit of waste makes stealing as well as want. With the big men openly gloating over the big plums, the little fellows will inevitably be secretly anxious to get their fingers on the little pickings. Hence defalcations; hence bribes and dishonesty and the breakdown of the public service. Graft is a barnacle always found clinging to extravagance.

But there is a more specific reason for an outcrop of scandal under a Republican Administration. Eight years of crying up the duty of the Government to make every man rich cannot fail to produce such results as we see. All corruption is not due to the protective tariff, but every protective tariff necessarily carries corruption with it. This is mainly why philosophical statesmen like Lord Rosebery dread its introduction in England. The virus of protection is too strong for the finest political virtue. Let men once get into the habit of running to Parliament or Congress for laws to put money in their private purse, and public demoralization follows as the night the day. It is folly to think the manufacturers and the other special interests can go and get their special booty unobserved, or without awaking cupidity in millions. They set the example of demanding a living from the Government, and every Government employee, every ne'er-do-weel with political influence, is exposed to the infection and begins to think how he, too, may get a lift from the Treasury. To buy a tariff law is too much like taking bribes for doing one's official duty, or for permitting exemption from the law; and the Republican great ones who do the former, directly encourage the latter.

By being so frequently compelled to strike at corruption in the Government, President Roosevelt, we should hope, may be led to reflect upon its political causes. They are apart from his personality. He did not himself sow the seed; neither will his angry lopping off the offending growths as they appear make an end of the crop. For deep-seated corruption, deep-working causes must be sought; and he who would cut the evil up by the root must dig down to governmental lavishness—with the avarice and unscrupulousness it excites—and to the protective system, with its proved provocation to bribery, perjury, cheating, and grafting in every form.

## *THE NATIONAL QUARANTINE.*

The governors of twelve Southern States and the chambers of commerce of the important Southern cities have signed the call for a conference to be held at Chattanooga on November 9 and 10, to consider questions relating to quarantine and immigration. The most important object is to devise "some uniform system of quarantine that will allay apprehension of the people and minimize the dangers resulting from an outbreak of yellow fever." "This is necessary," says the call further, "if we would save our land from the demoralizing and brutalizing tendencies of a panic-inspired quarantine."

Not in a good many years, certainly, has the general temper been so favorable to the passage of effective national quarantine legislation. The Southern press has been full of expressions favorable to this policy. It has been openly insinuated that New Orleans got into her present plight and brought danger to all her neighbors simply by reason of over-leniency toward a fruit trade she was very anxious to retain. Underneath all considerations of local pride is the conviction that, in matters of this kind, Federal laws have a habit of getting themselves enforced, while State and local regulations are frequently unequal to an emergency.

The confident prediction is made that the next Congress will give the country a complete national quarantine system. When the chief executives of South Carolina and the other old-time States'-rights commonwealths take the lead in asking that State control in this particular be superseded by Federal, the chances should be altogether favorable, especially as there is no opposition apparent, and medical and scientific authorities are a unit on that side. But history has been in the habit of repeating itself in this matter, and the same course of events has been reënacted almost every time that an epidemic broke out or was threatened here. First, the local authorities in their distress call for the aid of the national Government. This is promptly and efficiently given, and does not prove in any way subversive of anybody's liberties. "The thing to do," says every one, "is to put this under Federal control from the start." So agitation for a new law begins, but, before Congress gets around to the subject, the particular epidemic has been stamped out, and the need no longer seems to be urgent, so the law-makers pass some half-way measure, but stop short of the sweeping change really needed.

James Wilford Garner, writing in the *Yale Review*, has recently summarized past Federal legislation relating to the public health. As early as 1796, he recalls, a widespread outbreak of yellow fever brought the subject before Congress in a form not substantially different from that it will assume next winter. A bill was promptly introduced authorizing the President to prescribe and enforce quarantine regulations as

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concerned vessels arriving from abroad, but Congress would not trust even George Washington with such a power. The vote against this provision was exactly two to one. As passed, the act merely authorized the President to direct revenue officers and commandants of forts to aid in the enforcement of the health and quarantine laws of the States within which they were stationed. In 1799, 1832, and 1866 further legislation was enacted pursuant to the same policy of giving a helping hand to the pitiably inefficient State quarantines.

The seventies were eventful years in respect to quarantine agitation. First, a medical officer authorized by Congress made an exhaustive investigation at the Atlantic and Gulf ports, and reported in favor of a national system. Then the House passed a bill authorizing Federal quarantine regulations independent of those of the States, but the Senate killed it. Some five years later, however, as if to make a circle of contrariness, the Senate passed a bill of its own of similar purport, and the House let that die. Two compromise measures became law, and their enactment was followed by the greatest yellow-fever epidemic in our history.

The National Board of Health was created in 1879, and, by its power of offering pecuniary aid to State boards, it induced general compliance with its recommendations, and, as Mr. Garner says, "an approximate degree of uniformity and efficiency was secured." In 1890, for the first time, the Secretary of the Treasury was authorized to formulate rules and regulations to prevent the spread of plague without regard to the local provisions, but this applied only to interstate quarantine. In 1893, another long step was taken. Under the act of that year the Federal authorities, if they find local regulations inadequate, may make additional ones, and, if the local officers refuse or neglect to enforce them, the President can do so. This plan obviously lacks entirely the quickness of action absolutely necessary if danger is really to be averted. In 1893, the first year of the new law, a cholera ship actually landed at one of our ports before the clumsy machinery could be brought into action. We have also had the spectacle of two sets of quarantine officials at one port, putting every arriving vessel to double expense and delay through the farce of reinspection.

The present system is virtually one of local quarantines, though some of these are maintained by national, some by State, and some by municipal authorities. There is an annual conference of quarantine officials, and even without new legislation the national Government is gradually taking over a larger proportion of the stations. Within the year covered by the last Surgeon-General's report, for instance, the States of Florida, North Carolina, New Jersey, and Maine, and the city of Savannah, had transferred their quarantine stations to the United States Government. There remain eight disinfection and twelve inspection stations maintained by States and cities. To say that some of these must be more efficient than others is only to say what is true of every other group of human institutions under independent management, especially if it be semi-political management. But there are not many human institutions in which even temporary laxity is likely to be followed by such dire consequences. Against the attacks of disease our coast line is no stronger than its weakest point.

## THE FINANCIAL OUTLOOK.

It has been remarked that the financial year does not properly begin, like the calendar year, on January 1. That date, indeed, falls in the middle of a season when influences and tendencies already developed are in full swing, and when the forces which dominated markets in December continue to operate throughout the two or three ensuing months. The time when the financial year has its real beginning is the springtime, when the world's harvests for the new season are first in prospect, and when, simultaneously, the world's money markets show their capacity or lack of capacity to meet the demands on them. The influences which thus grow visible become clearly defined in the early autumn, first because the world will then have learned the outcome of its harvests; second, because the marketing of the world's crops intensifies whatever strain on the money markets may previously have existed. It is for this reason that the nature of a financial and industrial situation may usually be detected at this season of the year more clearly than at any other period. The well-known fact that great money panics have usually broken out in May or in November is no mere accident. The pressure had in each case begun a month or two before, and the business community speedily discovered that the money market was unable to provide for outstanding liabilities. But it is equally true that outbursts of financial optimism have usually been associated with similar periods in the year. The reason in that case also is that the test had been applied to the situation with satisfactory results.

The outlook at the present moment is undoubtedly favorable. In the fundamental element of agricultural prosperity, the season has favored this country in an unusual degree. It is conceded that our wheat crop will in all probability exceed that of all previous years but one, and that the corn crop will surpass all precedent. This occurs when the legitimate demand from consumers of such products is at high-water mark, and when, therefore, the American grain-growing communities will receive a still larger instalment of the wealth which of late has flowed every year into their hands.

The wheat farmer seems, indeed, to be assured of unusual good fortune. When last year's crop ran heavily short of recent yields, leaving an insignificant export surplus, it was presently found that the foreign consuming world could get on without help from America. An enormous Russian harvest filled up, in the export trade to consuming states, all of the void left by the shortage in our crop. This year, the indication is that Russia's harvest will decrease from last year's record in almost exactly the same proportion as our own increases; the inference being, if the forecast is correct, that the United States will regain the preëminent place among wheat-exporting nations which it lately seemed to have forfeited. With the cotton crop, the prospect is not in all respects the same; the yield, though estimates vary widely and none finds unqualified acceptance, cannot well exceed the spinning trade's requirements for a normal year, and may run considerably short of them. But, even so, we have the highly important offsetting fact that last year's crop exceeded by two and a quarter million bales even the unprecedented consumption of the period. This surplus, carried over into the new cotton year, and added to the new crop's yield, should leave the supply available for the trade larger than any on record, save for the great crop of 1904. The marketing of the surplus from last year's crop has raised our cotton export in the two past months, at the very end of the cotton year, to a figure $17,000,000 greater than has ever before been reached in the period.

These are ground facts which make for American prosperity; they will at least go very far towards ensuring continuance of the good times of the past half-dozen years. The qualifying factor, in the minds of many conservative observers, has been the extravagant and sometimes reckless use of capital. It is undeniable that the spirit of speculation, which has pervaded many sections of the community, is a constant source of danger—its possibilities having been plainly pointed out by such incidents as the Bank of Milwaukee affair last spring and the Equitable scandal, not to mention the very grave warning from the story of 1903. To a large extent, however, it may be said that our capitalists and promoters have taken to heart those lessons. Demands on capital have been large; during the first half of the present year, actual absorption of capital through issue of new securities ran nearly parallel with 1901. The "listings" on the New York Stock Exchange, however, which are a trustworthy measure of such movements, indicate, first, a far greater ratio of borrowings for productive purposes,

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and a far smaller ratio for purposes of amalgamation, watering capital, inflation of values, and stock-jobbing generally. This is a distinction of importance. The simple fact that, whereas, in the first half of 1901, no less than $959,000,000 new stock was thus issued and listed, purely to buy up other stocks and bonds, whereas the similar issues, in the past half-year, foot up only $191,000,000, shows a salutary change.

Belief that the more conservative policy will continue, and that the markets will witness no recurrence of the mania of four years ago, is a ground for hopefulness. The investing public's attitude in the matter is perhaps the surest present safeguard. A public infatuated to the pitch of 1901 would, in the light of all experience, render maintenance of scruples in the banking world a matter of some improbability. But the public has learned its lesson even more thoroughly than the bankers, and the experience is too recent to be speedily forgotten.

The stock market is, in a general way, an index to prosperity or adversity, but a mistake very commonly made by our people is to assume that whatever puts up prices temporarily makes for prosperity, and vice-versa. This is much like supposing that if some one can only push the mercury down in the thermometer, he will bring cold weather. Wild movements on the Stock Exchange, fomented by reckless speculators, become a menace in themselves. It may be said, indeed, that the constant fear that such-and-such an act or policy will "put down stocks," is the narrowest sort of reasoning. It is quite possible that public legislation may depress a given stock or group of stocks, yet operate distinctly in the direction of the community's general welfare and prosperity. These principles should be kept in mind when such questions as those of Trust regulation or tariff revision are proposed, as they may be during the coming winter.

## *THE PRIVATE-CAR MONOPOLY.*

The railway-rate bill to be pressed at the coming session of Congress will not differ materially from that which was under consideration last winter. So, at least, say Representatives Charles E. Townsend of Michigan and John J. Esch of Wisconsin, who held a conference on the subject last week. Their statement is not explicit as to the private-car lines. If these are to be brought under supervision of the Interstate Commerce Commission, either the original Townsend-Esch bill must be amended, or some such supplementary measure as that introduced last January by Representative F. C. Stevens of Minnesota must be passed. The abuses of the private-freight car are sure to be fully discussed, for people are much disturbed by the present situation. One reply of the railways to the complaints of shippers is that the railway itself is helpless: the blame lies with a refrigerator-car line, which controls the traffic in meat, vegetables, and fruit. On September 6, for example, the Southern Railway, the Atlantic Coast Line, and several other companies filed, in answer to the Commission's inquiry, a disclaimer to the effect that the railroads were in no respect responsible for the charges made against the Armour lines. Two days later the Armours put in a denial that they were subject to the Interstate Commerce Commission.

On the abuses of the private lines it is unnecessary to dwell at length. The Commission has within a year gathered under this head much evidence, which has been summarized in the daily press. Further details have been collected and published in the popular magazines. In brief, the Armour car-monopoly handles the cattle and meat of the Middle West, the vegetables and fruit of the South, and of Minnesota, Wisconsin, and Michigan, and the fruit of California and Oregon. The farmers of these vast regions are at the mercy of a single company; they are offered the curt alternative, "Take it or leave it. Submit to our terms or be ruined." They may protest as loudly as they please in regard to the supply of cars, to the methods of handling the product in transit, and to the cost of icing, but they have no redress except such as the monopoly may graciously vouchsafe.

The fact that the rates are extortionate has been established beyond cavil. The Interstate Commerce Commission, in its last annual report, called attention to an "enormous and unreasonable increase in refrigeration charges." Among examples of such increases under Armour control are the following: From $20 to $55 on a car from Michigan to Boston, $10 to $37.50 from Michigan to Dubuque, and, most amazing of all, $7.50 to $45 from Michigan to Duluth. The icing charge on a car of pineapples from Mobile to Cincinnati, under an exclusive contract with the Armour Company, is given by the Commission as $45, while on another road, which furnishes its own cars, the charge from New Orleans to Cincinnati is only $12.50.

The Commission further declares that to favored shippers concessions in refrigeration charges are made which amount practically to a rebate. Of course, the fruit shipper does not care whether he gets his rebate nominally on a charge for icing or for freight. The two together make up the cost of transportation. He must use the refrigerator car, and he must have it iced. Whatever the form of the discount, the effect is exactly the same. The shipper who basks in the good graces of the private-car monopoly enjoys an unfair advantage over his rivals, and really evades with impunity the interstate commerce law, which forbids freight rebates.

That these conditions are an outrage the most strenuous opponent of Government railway regulation admits. By a mere hocus-pocus the railways escape from their duties as common carriers. They make a long-term contract with a private company, which contends that it is not bound by interstate commerce law; and they leave growers and shippers under the heel of an irresponsible monopoly. To the shareholder who lives quietly in New York or Boston, and who takes no interest in railway management, provided the dividends be regular, the Western farmer's hostility to the railway seems wholly unreasonable. "Why," he asks wonderingly, "are the people who raise apples in Michigan, peaches, melons, and strawberries in the South, and oranges and pears in California shrieking so about injustice? Why does the mere process of tilling the soil drive men crazy with hatred of corporations? Why are agricultural regions always the prey of noisy demagogues who advocate national ownership of railways?" These innocent questions we have already answered. The fruit-growers are suffering from gross injustice; they have solid ground on which to base their hatred of corporations; and they will be ready to vote for national ownership if they can see no other sure plan of relief. They very properly laugh at the argument that the railways themselves are the victims of the monopoly. That is too preposterous. The railways deliberately made the compact with the Armours, and they must be held answerable for the outcome.

The political strength of the movement for rate regulation is already formidable. Even railway Senators are now aware that something must be done to quiet popular clamor. To put an end to the abuses of the private-car monopoly would do much to allay discontent; and well-informed observers believe that the railways are getting ready to throw this tub to the whale. If the railways escape with that sacrifice, they may count themselves lucky.

## *THE SITUATION IN AUSTRIA.*

The resignation of Baron Fejervary points to the probability that there will be found a way, at Vienna as well as at Budapest, of reconciling the differences between the two halves of the Austro-Hungarian monarchy. The law of self-preservation has proved the most efficient peacemaker. In Hungary no less than in Cisleithania the situation has become well-nigh intolerable. The Delegations cannot meet, taxes in Hungary cannot be collected, her recruits fail to respond, there are no funds available for common expenditures, and, most important of all, the commercial relations with other countries are

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threatened. During this month the treaties with Switzerland and Bulgaria will expire, and there are pending treaties with Belgium, Servia, Russia, and Rumania, which cannot be ratified without the sanction of the Hungarian Diet. The treaty with Germany has been ratified only by the Austrian Reichsrath; that with Italy has not yet been concluded either in Vienna or in Budapest. Hungary has so far remained passive and left it in doubt whether she will allow the Delegation of her Diet to meet that of the Reichsrath for the discussion of foreign relations.

There is every indication that such considerations have been far more potent in causing the retirement of Fejervary's impossible Ministry than difficulties in carrying out his scheme for universal suffrage. The plan of drawing from the Opposition by dangling this bait before the peasantry and the laboring classes was really chimerical. The peasantry of Hungary are much more amenable to local influences than to the blandishments of the Government, and the laboring men, there as elsewhere, are apt to turn to Socialist leaders for counsel. The Christian Socialists alone have watched their opportunity and offered themselves alternately to friend and foe. But the Government has shrunk from the prospect of riding into power in this way. Francis Kossuth, too, has guardedly declined to promise universal suffrage in the name of the united coalition.

There have, in fact, of late been distinct signs of a weakening of national pretensions in Budapest and of a more conciliatory spirit in Vienna. Even in ultra-radical circles in Hungary the practical advantage of a slight knowledge, on the part of the soldier, of some language other than Magyar is conceded; while, at least in the non-military circles of Vienna, it is admitted that in times of peace a judicious re-grouping of troops according to nationalities, giving the Hungarian soldier a Hungarian officer, might save the susceptibilities of the proud Magyar. The outcry evoked in certain quarters by the demand for national flags and emblems for the Hungarian contingent of the common army recalled in its intensity the protest in our own country over the first proposal to restore to the South the Confederate flags, for there are still those in the Austrian capital who speak of the Hungarians as traitors, and there was something of the fear of seeing the "rebels in the saddle" in the repugnance of Cisleithania to granting Hungary an arsenal of her own.

The demands of the Hungarians, with a view to lasting peace between the two halves of the monarchy, were recently discussed in the Berlin *Zukunft*, in a dignified survey of the situation by Count Theodore Batthyányi, a nephew of Count Louis Batthyányi, President of the Hungarian Ministry of 1848-49, who was executed by Haynau. It is not true, Count Batthyányi contends, that the Opposition is either disloyal to the sovereign or unwilling to assume power. It stands ready to take up the reigns of government the moment its strictly constitutional demands are granted. But he admits that Deák's compromise suffered from this inherent defect, that "the Austrian law determining the *Ausgleich* conflicted in some essential particulars with that of Hungary"—in other words, the vagueness of the language is answerable for some of the present misunderstandings. The unwritten English Constitution has no counterpart in the Hapsburg monarchy, and the letter of the so-called fundamental laws of the dual country is not infrequently a doubtful guide in constitutional or parliamentary perplexities. It is little to the purpose, for instance, in discussing the violation of rules of parliamentary procedure, or the propriety of restoring to the Hungarian contingent the national flag, to quote the second article of the Pragmatic Sanction of the year 1720, guaranteeing "the independence, special privileges, and the Constitution of the land," and pledging the King "ever to govern Hungary with the laws created by the Diet or thereafter to be created." Hungary can afford to heed, in minor matters, Goethe's panegyric of our own country:

> "Dich stört nicht im Innern
> Zu lebendiger Zeit
> Unnützes Erinnern
> Und vergeblicher Streit."

Fortunately, Hungarian statesmen have a sense of reality. Andrássy, Apponyi, Zichy, Batthyányi, and others owe much to cosmopolitan and, above all, to German culture, and are not anxious to wound German feeling either in Vienna or in Berlin. They must, too, feel that to denounce as traitors Count Tisza and the 124 members of the Liberal party who still refuse to obey the behests of the leaders of the United Opposition, is to discredit the past of the party of Deák and to throw doubt on Hungarian patriotism itself. And no one is more ready to admit that the present time calls for conciliatory action than Francis Kossuth. He is by no means a scheming Warwick, and no longer the agitator for a purely personal union between Hungary and Austria, but an aspiring politician, with an eye to office and power. If Francis Joseph now turns to him for advice, a solution will be found of those practical problems which must be met if Austria-Hungary is to retain her rank among nations.

## THE ECLIPSE IN TRIPOLI.

SYRACUSE, SICILY, August 14, 1905.

The fairest of summer voyages brought the Amherst Eclipse Expedition to Gibraltar on Sunday, the 6th instant. Behind the fine breakwater lay the U. S. F. S. *Minneapolis*, of the Special Service Squadron, under Commander-in-Chief Admiral Chester, then on his way to Valencia and Daroca for the eclipse. Quite as impressive as one remembers it, the old rock looms above, but the picturesque town is dry and barren in August, showing no such wealth of brilliant blossoms in garden and alameda as is characteristic in April and May. Sunday quiet filled the generally gay streets, for English military posts are not attractive to pleasure-loving "natives" of any clime when shops are closed and barter is forbidden. So most of the 9,000 or more Spaniards who must pass over the neutral ground each night before gate-closing time remain for Sundays as well at La Linea. The usual Moors, Moroccans and donkeys were also conspicuously absent. With brief tarrying the expedition passed on to Naples, an excellent point of departure for Tripoli.

Steamers leave there only once a week for the Barbary city; but the two or three intervening days allowed none too much time for transferring telescopes and apparatus cases from our steamer to that of the Navigazione Generale Italiana, and for other matters of expedition business; strong antidotes are needed to counteract the midsummer tendency toward restfulness in the average South Italian. Vesuvius has been active for weeks, and presents at night a magnificent spectacle, as intermittent fountains of flame spring upward to a considerable height from the topmost crater, while a redly glowing track extends far down the mountainside.

With necessary business finally accomplished, we stood on the *Peloro's* deck, telescopes safely stowed below, and sailed out over a turquoise sea, past Pompeii and the lovely Sorrento shore, leaving Point Campanella, and crossing the entrance to the Salernian Gulf, with Amalfi just hidden on its shelf-terrace, and with a glimpse of Stromboli, ever active. At last, beautiful Capri, enshrouded in that radiant Italian atmosphere whose like is seen nowhere else, vanished in the blue haze of well-nigh iridescent distance, and the Straits of Messina lay ahead. Time at the Sicilian city—now modern and rejoicing in successful trade—was chiefly of interest because of the old sun-dial, a diagonal part of the cathedral floor, marking by quaint signs of the zodiac, figures, and lettering, the year, month, day, as, through a tiny hole far above among the great roof beams, one ray of sunlight streams down at high noon upon the prescribed spot.

News was received at the observatory in Catania of still another eclipse expedition. Astronomy here, at the observatory of Catania and Ætna, is almost exclusively confined to research upon the sun, and the institution is one of the most famous solar observatories in existence, Professor Riccò, its director, being the Nestor of living solar specialists. Within recent years, he and his able assistant Mascari have added a department of geophysics. Instruments set up in the ancient underground labryinths for registering seismic disturbances afford facilities unsurpassed in the world.

TRIPOLI, BARBARY, August 30.

The day for which we have prepared so faithfully dawned this morning, like all its predecessors since our arrival, in entire clearness. Even the Arab ovens, which start before sunrise with a great quantity of ill-smelling smoke, were not able to

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stain for more than a few moments the intense blue of the sky. But it was singularly hot for this city of fresh breezes and tonic sunlight, and by coffee time it became evident that a mild *gibleh* was in progress, that strange south wind from the desert blowing from hundreds of parched Sahara miles, and several times a year transforming into a dry furnace the dazzling white city. We had known in advance that no nerve-tension as to possible cloud on eclipse day would be manifested, for it is the height of the dry season, which in Tripoli means a succession, for months, of perfectly clear days and nights. But there is always the disquieting possibility—less in summer than earlier or later, however—of a three days' *gibleh*. If it blows violently, a great quantity of desert sand is soon suspended in the atmosphere, and a yellowish veil is drawn over distant palm groves and houses, the sea horizon comes nearer and nearer, ships are blotted out, and, after a time, even the sun himself peers through this odd terrestrial haze, his brightness covered, until it is entirely comfortable to gaze with unshrouded eyes upon his round dimness. Usually, after three days, the wind changes back to the north, bringing refreshing coolness from the blue Mediterranean; the hovering sand settles back into its desert spaces; and once more Tripoli becomes one of the loveliest of climates. Although the thermometer may have risen to 105 degrees or even 110 degrees Fahrenheit, even then it is not depressing heat, but the very intense dryness and purity bring a certain stimulating quality unknown elsewhere.

This morning the eastern sky, at four o'clock, over the white roofs and beyond the minarets, flushed faintly, only enough to enhance the glory of Orion and Sirius, of Jupiter and splendid Venus. Growing constantly yellower, the stars faded into it; and by the time the flocks of goats with their tiny, tinkling bells, the slow camels, the overladen donkeys, began to enliven the plaster cañons of streets far below, the sun arose in penetrating brilliance, all unaware of the great event the new day would bring. But somewhere in sky-depths invisible lurked the moon in waiting. Higher rose the sun; she followed, unseen, but potent. The breeze dropped, and intense heat began. By eleven o'clock the palm groves about the Karamanli tombs were mistily yellow, and the desert shimmered in haze. As yet the suspended sand, carried on the light south wind, had not risen more than two or three degrees above the horizon, and deep blue sky arched the world, absolutely without cloud. Silhouetted against the sea arose the fine battery of meteorological instruments on the roof of the Italian consulate, presided over by Prof. Luigi Palazzo of Rome, who has mounted one of the most perfect and complete sets of instruments for meteorological and physical elements ever installed in an eclipse track.

Not a ripple stirred the pale blue sea, and the heat grew apace. As before, the roof-terrace of the British Consulate-General has been tendered to our expedition for observing purposes, and, no less than when we were here in 1900, has proved an ideal eclipse station. Considerably higher than surrounding houses, only minarets of mosques and the lighthouse dominate; and from its vantage-ground the white city lies spread below, between sea and illimitable sand. Mr. Justin C. W. Alvarez, H. B. M. Consul-General at Tripoli, is in England on leave, but Mr. Alfred Dickson, Vice-Consul and acting Consul-General, has made a most thoughtful host for the expedition, doing everything in his power to enhance not only our personal comfort, but the usefulness of the work. Also Mr. W. F. Riley, Mr. Venables and Mr. Mario Nunes-Vais have been unwearied in their kind exertions for the advancement of our interests in every line; and a list of those in Tripoli, from Mr. Saunders (who arranged for special time from Greenwich by telegraph) to Mufta, the head cavasse or dragoman of the consulate, who have conspired to smooth every difficulty and speed our preparations, would include not only every member of the small English colony here, but many French and Italians, Arabs, Jews and Turks. Among the last is a very picturesque old man, Etim Bey, long an exile from Constantinople, who has spent his Tripolitan years in collecting vast numbers of specimens of every sort of invention. His house, where he lives alone with two servants, near the great Arab bread market, is a veritable museum of watches, clocks, walking canes and hunting crops, guns, muskets, pistols, swords, pictures, lamps, even an automobile, which could by no means navigate the narrow, crowded thoroughfares of Tripoli. But his specialty is cameras, and the collection includes everything which might be used in connection with photography. All his properties have been generously placed at the disposal of our expedition. Genuine interest has been shown in its objects and preparations by the present Governor of Tripolitania, His Excellency Redjid Pasha, who has not only with much appreciation examined the telescopes and their working, but has detailed special officials from the castle on several occasions to further our interests where Turkish authority was especially helpful. Among these gentlemen who have been particularly kind are Bé-Rir Bey, Hassan Bey, Krieger Bey and Feyzullah Bey.

Practically, eclipse preparations were completed yesterday. As the time between our arrival and the thirtieth was necessarily somewhat shorter than we could have wished, Professor Todd planned a less extensive programme than he has frequently carried out. His chief instrument is a 12-inch lens made especially for photographic work, and provided with a whirling occulter which he designed and described in a paper before the Royal Astronomical Society some years ago. It is a modification of the Burckhalter type, and is prepared with reference to reducing the exposure inward toward the sun in accordance with Professor Turner's law of the increase of its light. The plates are mounted in an endless chain of a sort similarly devised and used by Professor Todd in his West African expedition of 1889. One of the automatic instruments devised for the Japan eclipse of 1896, and loaded as it was in Singkep for the Dutch East Indies eclipse of 1901, prepared to take pictures at the rate of about fourteen every ten seconds, and all exactly alike, is set up beside the large tube, the eye-end of all the instruments coming into the dark-room, which becomes thus in itself a sort of huge camera. A pair of lenses of the standard type in searching for intra-Mercurian planets, and also arranged for photographing the outer corona, is mounted with the others. As in 1900, the Arabs had many strange tales about the astronomer and his great preparations for interfering with the sun, and a few were in a state of lively terror as the day approached. But in general they seemed less genuinely alarmed than five years ago, though more were interested.

By noon, the yellow sand haze had risen higher, and the unpleasant possibility of its actually staining the deep blue of the sky at eclipse time, and confusing coronal streamers, began to assume larger proportions. Our equipment of masons and workmen generally has included a large number of nationalities and religions, with never a word of English between them. But seeing my frequent trips to a seaward balcony, and to another commanding the desert, old Challum, the native carpenter, essayed comfort in a mixture of Arabic, struggling Italian, and some unknown tongue combined, apparently to the effect that there would be no *gibleh* by afternoon—that the wind would change; and in evidence conducted me to a corner of the terrace from which a certain bit of reef and a boat or two could be seen, framed by a mosque dome and a palm tree. Pointing triumphantly seaward, he must have showed me the truth of his prophecy, for in a few moments a gentle ripple turned the pale sea dark blue, the flags which had blown discouragingly outward from the south now hung limply for an instant, and then fluttered manfully forth in the opposite direction. In an incredibly short time the north breeze had cleared the air of sand; once more the palms stood forth distinctly, the horizon retreated. *Gibleh* had threatened, had even set one foot toward Tripoli, and then graciously retired for a more convenient season.

Preparations not only for the special photographic work had been made, but arrangements for amateur help in various lines promised much assistance in observing the minor phenomena; and, just before first contact, still another rehearsal of every one concerned was held on the terrace. Plumb-lines to assist the artists in drawing the corona had been set up, and behind them were stationed, with prepared discs, pencils, and a lantern in case totality should be especially dark, Miss Venables, Miss Todd, Miss Harold, Mr. Zolla, Mr. Nahum, Mr. Salvatore, and Mr. Leadbetter. A high disc, planned to shut off the intense brightness of the inner corona, and perhaps serve to bring into prominence whatever long, outer streamers there might be, was mounted on the flagpole; small telescopes for drawing fine detail, shadow-band indicators—each was in its place, with a volunteer observer in attendance. The programme ran through smoothly, and at 1:43 the first contact was announced. Very quickly an appreciable piece of the sun's disc was bitten out, the partial phase well on.

Surrounding terraces were crowded with the inhabitants, all gazing skyward through smoked-glass, instead of at us as before. Here and there a roof showed groups of Italians or Maltese in European dress, but generally these uplifted companies were more picturesque Moslems, and the entire

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city seemed to have left streets and courtyards as well as rooms, and to have collected on these charming roofs, so distinctively a feature of Arab communities. Even the minarets were crowded, and every balcony was heavily freighted. As the partial phase proceeded, a subdued excitement became apparent. The crowds increased; a few boys in the street below, carrying trays of yellow loaves on their heads, deposited their burdens to gaze upward. The Franciscan friars gathered on their terrace, a harsh call to prayer sounded from a white-robed muezzin on a near-by minaret; troubled swallows flew back and forth in futile questioning, and a sad light, of subdued, late-twilight color, spread over the dazzling world. Under the old sumac tree in the courtyard below, the usual discs of sunlight filtering through the foliage were showing now in distinct crescents, as leaf interstices acted like tiny pinhole cameras; and the official photographer of the expedition, Mr. Nunas-Vais, succeeded in making a very perfect picture of this pretty sight.

Still duller grew the day, and murmurs began to arise from all the great expanse of roofs, thickly crowded with expectant watchers. Here and there a dome or clustering domes or courtyard foliage emerging broke the even whiteness, now a pale gray. The muezzin began a continuous call. About ten minutes before totality, wavering shadow-bands swept across the white roofs in tiny, parallel lines, and the observers, stationed in their especial position, made careful note of direction, width, speed, and all the points most useful for sometime reading the riddle of these elusive appearances. As the crescent grew narrower, I looked particularly for Bailey's Beads, but saw none. Upon some of the photographs, however, taken at this time, they are distinctly visible. Fifteen or twenty seconds before totality the corona appeared, on the side farthest away from the disappearing brightness, spreading gradually around until it almost met the actual sunlight. Another second, and totality was announced, Mr. Yanoupolis of the Greek cruiser *Crete* marking time on an old Arabic bell every fifteen seconds. Eager pencils flew, photographers hurried, spectators applauded, as the soft white corona grew in the purple-gray sky, and cast its pale light over dome and minaret, sea and sand. And inside the big camera dark-room, patient hands kept guard over mechanisms which pursued their steady way unmoved by outer glories, piling up the flexible plate chains, each separate holder contributing its record as the time moved on.

Evenly expanded all around, this corona showed a few longer streamers in extension, and two small scarlet protuberances appeared. The detail in coronal filaments was very beautiful and complex, and much of this shows in the negatives already developed. But the inexorable bell kept up its discouraging tally of the flying moments, and, after three minutes had passed, but four seconds were noted before a tiny speck of true sunlight reappeared, and totality was over. The corona, however, continued to be visible for nearly fifty seconds.

About two hundred photographs were taken by the mechanical arrangements, and they will all soon be examined and compared. Whether any of the devices set to catch the possible intra-Mercurian planet will have succeeded, remains to be seen. It is already an eclipse memorable for crystalline skies, many trained observers, and a corona gratifyingly confirmatory of tentative solar theories as to its predicted form.

MABEL LOOMIS TODD.

## SCARRON.—II.

PARIS, September 6, 1905.

Scarron made his peace with the Court and with Mazarin after his marriage with Mlle. d'Aubigné. His young wife was much admired by all his friends. We have but few documents concerning the life of the poet at that time, being reduced to sundry letters of Scarron's own, to the historiettes of Tallemant des Réaux, to Segrais's souvenirs. Mlle. de Scudéry, author of "Clélie," so famous in her time, wrote a very flattering portrait of Madame Scarron:

"Lyrianne is tall and of a good figure; . . . she has a very clear and fine complexion; her hair is of a light brown; her nose very well cut, as is also her mouth. She has a noble air, mild, playful, and modest, and, to make her beauty more perfect and more shining, she has the finest eyes in the world. They are black, brilliant and soft, passionate and full of wit; their fire has something which cannot be expressed; a soft melancholy appears in them at times, with the charm which attends it. . . . Her mind seems expressly made for her beauty; it is high-toned, mild, agreeable. . . . She speaks justly and naturally, with grace and without affectation. She knows the world, and a thousand things of which she does not choose to be vain."

This portrait of Madame Scarron is, in my eyes, more interesting than the many which appeared afterwards of Madame de Maintenon. It explains many things—the great charm which drew to her all Scarron's friends, the part which she early took, in a very frivolous society; of a certain reserve that kept everybody at a distance. It explains also the charm which afterwards attracted Louis XIV. towards a person "whose mind seemed so expressly made for her beauty."

Madame de Maintenon said that the eight years she spent with Scarron, and the obscure period which followed his death, had been the happiest time of her life. To have found happiness in the house of poor Scarron seems almost a paradox. But Scarron, with all his faults, was a man of great wit; he was grateful to his wife, he admired her and saw her admired; she was grateful to the man who had given her a home and saved her from absolute poverty. Scarron, in an epistle to Mlle. de Scudéry, calls his wife

"Celle qui par le ciel soulage mon malheur,
Digne d'un autre époux comme d'un sort meilleur."

Though he was always in debt, Scarron lent money to his wife's brother, Charles d'Aubigné, and M. Chardon gives us the exact terms of a legal document in which Charles d'Aubigné recognizes himself Scarron's debtor in the sum of 4,000 livres, which he has borrowed in order to get his "outfit for service in the King's armies." Such an act tells us more about Scarron's sentiments toward his wife than certain letters which he wrote to his friends, and in which he mentions her in rather light terms, that cannot be considered serious. As for Madame Scarron's own sentiments, we may surmise that they were chiefly inspired by gratitude and by pity. We know only two authentic letters written by her during the period of her marriage with Scarron—one to Madame de Villette, the other to Madame de Villarceaux, and these are couched in the guarded manner characteristic of her. It is not likely that she took much pleasure in the feasts which Scarron gave from time to time at his house to his gay friends. One of them, Martin Pinchesne, a nephew of Voiture, took the trouble to describe, in rhyme addressed to Costar, one of these repasts, given on the occasion of a present of six chickens which had been sent to Scarron from Le Maine. It was hardly worth while to reproduce this piece of poetry, and we cannot imagine Madame Scarron finding it to her taste. She probably preferred to the conversations and jokes of Scarron's brother poets the society of Madame de Montchevreuil and Madame de Villarceaux; she knew Madame Fouquet, wife of the famous Superintendent.

"As for her friends," writes M. Chardon, "Marshal d'Albret, the Marquis of Villarceaux, Charleval, Raincy, etc., I will say nothing, and for good reason. Public malignity would view them as lovers. This is what happens at all times to young women, pretty, witty, and gallant, as was Madame Scarron. . . . It may be said now that the case is out of court. . . . As for myself, I am among those who, till proof to the contrary is found, prefer to write simply that she was an honest woman, rather than to see in her a Lady Tartufe."

The life of Madame Scarron consisted of good and evil days. Her society was made up of people of refinement, but she knew what Horace calls "res angusta domi." Scarron once writes to a friend that he cannot go out for want of a decent coat. He sometimes spent weeks in the country in the neighborhood of Paris; he wrote a part of the 'Roman Comique' at Fontenay-aux-Roses, near Paris. His health was getting worse and worse. "I assure, my dear friend," he writes to Marigny, "that if it were permitted me to snuff myself out, I should long ago have taken poison, and perhaps I shall have to come to that." He was trying all sorts of remedies; he wrote to a friend on the 26th of October, 1659: "I have been for a fortnight worse than I ever was, and I have no more hope except in *or potable*." He begged his friend to get him all he could find of the works of Raymond Lulle. A few days after his death his wife wrote to M. de Villette: "The poor man always had chimeras in his head; he ate what was most liquid in hope of the philosopher's stone or of something as well founded." He hoped against hope, and preserved a sort of gaiety to the end. He had the courage to write his "Testament en vers burlesques"—not so burlesque but that this little poem has a touch of melancholy. It is one of his best, and the enumeration of the legacies which he makes to the writers of his time is charming, and testifies to the natural kindness of his heart.

Scarron's marriage with Françoise d'Aubigné lasted eight years. M. Chardon has certainly thrown fresh light on this curious period. When we look at a portrait of Françoise d'Aubigné, in her youth, reproduced in his first volume, we can hardly understand how she could consent to unite her destiny with Scarron. It seems almost evident that she never was anything but a

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companion, a nurse, to the unfortunate poet. M. de Boislisle has published in the *Revue des Questions Historiques* the inventory made after Scarron's death at the request of his widow and some of his creditors. There exists also in the archives of the château de Brienne, which belongs to the family of Beaufremont, a *procès-verbal* of the post-mortem affixing of the seals. These documents show that in the modest interior of the Scarrons there existed still a remnant of past comfort. In the inventory we find pieces of tapestry, but there is no mention of the picture and the drawing which Poussin had given Scarron. We do not find in it the portrait of Madame Scarron which Mignard made on his return from Rome, where he had formed the poet's acquaintance, and which was probably finished in 1660. It is to this picture that Scarron alludes in an invitation to dinner sent to Mignard.

"Tu sais bien que le crayon
Qui se gâte à la poussière
N'est encore qu'un rayon
De la future lumière.
Viens, viens donc demain chez moy
Finir cet ouvrage rare."

There is only one picture mentioned, a Mary Magdalen. Of silver not a word. Only a few days before his death Scarron was obliged to give all he had in silver to two of his numerous creditors. The two principal ones, D'Elbène and Marshal d'Albret, behaved like gentlemen, and never entered their claims against the poor poet, who had so often amused and entertained them. Among the books of the library, which contained three hundred and fifty volumes, we notice only the 'Chevalier de la Table Ronde,' an 'Alaric' of Scudéry's, the 'Pucelle' of Chapelain, a French Bible, a Plutarch, the 'Histoire Universelle' of Agrippa d'Aubigné. These last were probably the favorite books of Madame Scarron, who had not forgotten her Protestant origin.

Left at the age of twenty-five, at the height of her beauty, without any resources, Madame Scarron retired immediately to the House of the Hospitalières in the Place Royale, where a relative of Scarron's, the Marshal d'Aumont, was lodged. Queen Anne of Austria, in consideration of her poverty, granted her a pension of 2,000 livres, on the recommendation of Madame de Montausier and Madame de Navailles. Her livelihood was thus assured, and she could live in the society of the Hôtels d'Albret, de Montchevreuil, de Villarceaux, and de Richelieu. She remained on good terms with Scarron's family, and was able to be of some use to certain members of it. Even long afterwards, when she had reached the height of her extraordinary fortune, she never neglected Scarron's old friends.

After this period of her married life, concerning which M. Chardon has given us so many interesting details, there came a new phase. From 1661 to 1669, till she became governess to the children of Louis XIV. and Madame de Montespan—that is to say, for eight years, a period as long as that of her married life—she remains in a sort of obscurity. Nothing, or very little, is known of that time, and it is very desirable that somebody should take as much trouble about it as M. Chardon has done for the period ending in 1661. After 1669, we enter into another phase, during which she became *dame d'atours* of the Queen. A third phase extends from her nomination to this office to the time when she became really Queen of France in 1684. "Twenty-five years," says M. Chardon, "sufficed to elevate her to the greatest fortune of modern times and the most surprising." In 1715, when her second husband died, who had been "le moins amusable des hommes," perhaps she bestowed on him fewer regrets than on the poor Scarron.

# Correspondence.

## THE WAY OUT OF THE PHILIPPINES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: You will be greatly relieved to learn that one of your readers has solved the knotty international problem of the Far East in a manner which only his modesty forbids his characterizing as the inspiration of true genius. And yet, like all great things, this solution is of an amazing simplicity. He spares you elaborate arguments in support of the proposal to show America's unbounded admiration for Japan's magnanimity towards her defeated foe by presenting her with the Philippine Islands. Four things will thus be accomplished at one time. We shall do for our old friend, Russia, that which she was unwilling or unable to do for herself, pay an indemnity; we shall give our new friend, Japan, that which she ardently wishes, and which we do not want ourselves; we shall put an end to riotings in Tokyo; and we shall, in an honorable yet glorified way, get rid of the most expensive and useless incubus ever voluntarily assumed by a so-called intelligent people. Some cynics there be who will hint that, in so doing, we shall merely be handing over to another Power the gold brick adroitly foisted on us by Spain; but such aspersions we can well afford to ignore.

An Anti-Imperialist.

Boston, September 7, 1905.

## THE JAPANESE INDEMNITY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The leader in the *Nation* of August 24 pointing out the inadmissibility of Japanese demands for reimbursement cleared the air of what it rightly characterizes as a curious species of cant, by which many minds were obfuscated. Japan's demand was contrary to the interests of peace-loving nations.

I write chiefly to point out the startling reversal of opinion on the point in question which has been brought about in the columns of the Edinburgh *Scotsman*, well known as the organ of Scottish Toryism, which is confessedly more uncompromising than that of England. Having for weeks daily argued for the Japanese claim to an indemnity, and to other things, the *Scotsman* this morning leads off with an article which I enclose, with congratulations to the *Nation* on its new convert from the policy of blood and iron. Having spoken of the current rumors of Japanese discontent at the abandonment of the claim for indemnity, and argued that this discontent was due to the violation of secrecy during the progress of negotiations, the *Scotsman* says:

"It is interesting to note that the New York *Nation*, a weekly organ of opinion which represents the best independent thinking in the States, had an article a week before there was any prospect of Japan's concession, in which it strongly condemned the proposed indemnity."

Then, after citing verbatim the *Nation's* parallel respecting a war in the Philippines, in which Japan should win, the *Scotsman* proceeds to say:

"This is the opinion, not of any irresponsible, sensational newspaper, but of one of the most unprejudiced and ably edited papers in the United States, and one which has been foremost in giving Japan all credit for her successes."

Apart from the wonder there is in seeing a Scottish Tory listen to reason from the *Nation*, and sincerely reconsider an opinion often and strongly expressed, this episode, scarcely less creditable to the *Scotsman* than to the *Nation*, shows what gain may come from the ever-increasing intimacy of intercommunication between Britain and America. Let us hope that English-speaking men the world over will get advantage from it, and be more amenable to sound arguments when they are disembodied of all personal quality by their transit through intervening space.

Yours sincerely, Louis Dyer.

St. Andrews, Scotland, September 7, 1905.

## COMMITTEES OF CORRESPONDENCE ONCE MORE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Mr. Carl Becker's communication (September 14) concerning early committees of correspondence revives interest in this method of intercolonial communication.

The committee referred to as appointed by the New York Assembly on October 18, 1764, and created to communicate with the sister Colonies, may be the first with that particular object in view. As early as 1759, however (Hening, Vol. 7, 276), an "Act for Appointing an Agent" was passed by the Virginia Assembly. The duty of this Agent, Edward Montague, of the Middle Temple, was to solicit and properly represent the affairs of Virginia in England.

The Act reads as follows:

"That Edward Montague, of the Middle-Temple, esq., be and is hereby appointed an agent of this Colony; to be at all times under the direction of the Honorable William Nelson, Thomas Nelson, Philip Grimes, and Peter Randolph, Esqs., John Robinson, Peyton Randolph, Charles Carter, Richard Bland, Landon Carter, Benjamin Watkins, George Wythe, and Robert Carter Nicholas, Esqs., who are hereby declared to be a *Committee of Correspondence*, to transmit such matters and things to him as shall be committed to their charge by the General Assembly; and to receive from him information and intelligence of his proceedings, as well in such cases as shall be to him intrusted by the said Committee, or the major part of them, as in every other matter and thing that shall come to his knowledge that may either affect or be for the interest of this Colony."

The latter clause of this Act, to the effect that "Every other matter and thing that shall come to his knowledge, that may either affect or be for the interest of this Colony," accounts for considerable correspondence to be found in this Library concerning various matters of interest to the Colonies in general, and which indicates very clearly that this Committee of Correspondence discussed matters, not only

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with the special Agent in England, but with the various Colonies, when said Agent's reports justified such action.

In so far as we are able to ascertain from records in this office, this is the first committee of its kind in Virginia, but it is not unlikely that other committees properly designated as "Committees of Correspondence" were created elsewhere prior to 1759.

With the purpose in view of ascertaining definitely the origin of the first legislation on this subject, it is hoped that some student of Colonial legislation will make known the result of his discoveries along this line.—Very respectfully,

JOHN P. KENNEDY, Librarian.

VIRGINIA STATE LIBRARY, RICHMOND,
September 15, 1905.

## 'TOLD IN THE GARDENS OF ARABY.'

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Since I wrote to you the letter printed in your issue of July 13 (p. 32) I have acquired a copy of the book called 'Told in the Gardens of Araby,' reviewed on June 15 (p. 481), and can testify that what it contains is simply a translation of nine out of fifteen tales published in the Turkish collection called 'The Crystal Palace.' The translation, although not always faithful, shows a tolerably good understanding of the original, but contains also several blunders which I cannot explain. Thus, for instance (p. 62), we find "bamam" instead of *hamam* (bathhouse) half a dozen times, and in the title of the "Story of the Crying Pomegranate and the Laughing Bear" the word bear (*ayí*) ought to be replaced by quince (*ayvá*). Was the translation dictated by an Armenian having a good knowledge of the Turkish language, but an imperfect one of the Arabic script?

Yours very respectfully, O. T.

September 15, 1905.

# Notes.

Among the new publications of the Baker & Taylor Co. are 'The Appreciation of Pictures,' by Russell Sturgis, and 'Impressions of Japanese Architecture and the Allied Arts,' by Ralph Adams Cram.

McClure, Phillips & Co.'s autumn announcements include 'Franklin in History,' by William MacDonald; 'The Wives of Henry VIII.,' by Martin Hume; 'A Commercial Traveller in South America,' by Frank Wiborg; 'The Horse in America,' by John Gilmer Speed; 'Portfolio of Bird Portraits,' by Bruce Horsfall, with text by W. E. D. Scott; 'The Mysterious Stranger, and Other Cartoons,' by John F. McCutcheon; 'Told by Uncle Remus,' by Joel Chandler Harris; and 'The Cost of Competition,' by Sidney A. Reeve.

'Armageddon; or, The Reshaping of the Far East,' by B. L. Putnam Weale, will shortly be issued by Macmillan.

T. Y. Crowell & Co. promise 'The Latin Poets,' an anthology in the best English translations, by Nathan Haskell Dole, a companion to his last year's 'Greek Poets'; 'The Best Hundred American Poems,' compiled by John R. Howard; and 'Greatness in Literature,' by Prof. William P. Trent.

Horatio Brown's 'In and Around Venice,' which we reviewed the other day from the English edition, is to be marketed here by Charles Scribner's Sons.

Soon to appear with the imprint of the Arthur H. Clark Co., Cleveland, is the original and complete Italian text of Pigafetta's account of Magellan's Voyage around the World. James A. Robertson will supply a page-for-page translation, with notes, and there will be facsimiles of the original plates and maps.

Messrs. Putnam have brought out a new edition, apparently the first since 1887, of Robert Christy's 'Proverbs, Maxims and Phrases of All Ages.' The two volumes have been compressed into one, very prepossessing, with gilt edges and rounded corners; but whereas originally the paper made the work heavy to handle, now the thin paper causes much vexation in separating leaf from leaf without crumpling or tearing. For this the gilding appears to be responsible. The schematic and other shortcomings of this collection, which we pointed out at the time, still remain.

Uniform with the foregoing is the quondam 'Banquet Book' of Cuyler Reynolds, now prettily reissued as 'Classified Quotations' by the above firm. Here the paper is above reproach, and the collection is a good one; more general, besides, than the needs of the banquet. The volume tapers off into "Popular Terms Explained"—from Absinthe and Apothecaries' Measure to Dessertspoon and Vermouth; "Proper Wines for Certain Courses"; "Calendar of Vintages"; "Popular Beverages," and how to make them, and a sample menu with accompanying toasts. The index is rather meagre, and twice it has referred us to bastard title-pages, with mottoes wholly irrelevant to the word sought (ballot, digestion).

The second volume (Carroll-Dyer) of Algernon Graves's sumptuous dictionary, 'The Royal Academy of Arts, 1769-1904' (London: Graves; New York: Macmillan), has all the interest of the first. Readable, one might fairly call it; and if it were indexed by portraits of persons painted, by labelled landscape, and by literary and historic incident and allusion, what a graphic library of humanity in repose and in action, geography, and mental productivity would be unrolled before us! The frontispiece is a portrait of Benjamin West, the Academy's second president; and under Charles Compton is a canvas of 1849 describing West as a precocious boy of seven drawing his sleeping sister. Another great American artist here represented is Copley, whose "Boy attacked by a shark in the harbor of Havana" (1778) was approved by Walpole. Among our recent painters, J. F. Cropsey appears. The preëminent English names are Constable and Chantrey, and there are a few paintings by George Cruikshank, only one (1859) didactic, "The sober man's Sunday and the drunkard's Sunday." Again one notes how art seems to run in families, *e. g.*, Corbould, Daniell, and Dicksee; while four Chalons, all portraitists, and exhibiting collectively from 1792 to 1860, fill fourteen pages, or one-fourteenth of the entire bulk of this section of the dictionary. To be sure, Abraham Cooper (1812-1888) occupies nine pages, but he is protracted by inordinately long descriptive titles, like that of his "Bosworth Field," a full column. The flight of Eliza across the Ohio River on the ice furnished Francis S. Cary a theme in 1853.

The third volume of Luther S. Livingston's compendious 'Auction Prices of Books, 1894-1904' (Dodd, Mead & Co.) carries on the work to Richards. The compiler can note the good demand for his own 'American Prices Current,' his volume seven fetching $16.50. In the English field, Charles Lever shows a steady if moderate-priced request, but nine guineas is the most one gives for John Leech. Lewis and Clark's journals in the English edition of 1815 sold for $45, while Coues's four annotated volumes of 1893 brought only $34. The Longfellow traffic is large, but medium in the average, his high-water mark being $205 for a copy of his Poems on Slavery, with Lowell's signature. Lowell rules higher, and a presentation copy of his Harvard Ode was knocked down at $410. Maria Lowell's Poems went for $210. These pale before Poe, whose 'Murder in the Rue Morgue' was wanted at $1,000, and his 'Tamerlane' at $2,050. Longfellow's copy of the (anti-slavery) 'Liberty Bell' was in 1896 worth $5.50, and was resold five years later for $24. Twelve pages are devoted to Cotton Mather, and eight to Increase. Many newspapers, especially of New York and Pennsylvania, are here recorded; and we will remark that the first two volumes of the *Nation* cost the purchaser $24 in 1901.

Twenty years have elapsed since the children of William Lloyd Garrison published the first half of the standard Life of their father. This revolution of time has also brought the hundredth anniversary of his birth (December 10, 1805), which they now commemorate in a small volume, 'The Words of Garrison,' a centennial selection of characteristic sentiments from his writings, dedicated "to all who hate cruelty, oppression, and war, and believe in the equal rights and perfectibility of mankind" (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). The extracts are classified under ten headings, as, Autobiographical, Slavery, Non-Resistance, Perfectionism, Politics, Woman's Rights, etc., and fill some fifty pages. They are an authentic exhibition of the spirit which animated the moral leader of the anti-slavery cause, in contrast with the prevailing Christianity of his time and—we might almost say *à fortiori*—of the present. There follows in the same space a reprint of the biographical sketch prepared for the memorial volume of the City of Boston in 1886 (on occasion of the erection of Garrison's statue). Twenty-five pages more are occupied with an appendix of select portraits and statuary, a select bibliography, and a chronology, valuable for reference. The book is tastefully printed and bound, and has a portrait frontispiece.

As a collection of miscellaneous essays, originally written for the Chicago *Record-Herald*, Mr. W. E. Curtis's 'Modern India' (Revell) compares favorably with similar golden sheafs. But, with much that is statistically accurate, the book unfortunately abounds in printer's and author's errors. A few obvious cases of the former kind occur on pages 144, 145, 150, 156, 287, 446. Not quite so clear is the correction to be made on page 172: "The Maharaja of Jeypore represents the one hundred and twenty-third of his family, which is ants [*sic*] of the hero of a great Sanskrit epic." The founder of Jainism was not "a Buddhist

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priest about a thousand years ago," and the Abigranth (*sic*) is not the bible of "a Hindu heresy" and debased Islam (pp. 111, 114, 300). The author is happier in his delineation of modern life, and the casual reader will enjoy the descriptions of town and country, plague and famine, peasant and priest—especially if he has not read too much of the same sort in the many memoirs of previous travellers.

The school edition of pedagogic classics edited by Dr. Theodor Tupetz, an inspector of country schools, and published in Leipzig by G. Freytag, has for its sixth volume 'J. J. Rousseau: Emil, oder Ueber die Erziehung.' It opens with an outline sketch of Rousseau's life quite wanting in causal coherency and in explanation of his intellectual development, in which Mme. de Warens's part is ignored. The right of revolution against an oppressive ruler inculcated in the 'Contrat Social' is naïvely declared "false and dangerous doctrine." The 'Émile' is next taken up and given selectively in translation, with editorial piecing and with footnotes explanatory and critical. The Savoyard Vicar's confession of faith is barely mentioned, and not excerpted, so that the most eloquent part of the book and that which caused it to be burnt alike in Paris and in Geneva, and led to the author's wandering existence amid real and fancied persecution, is withheld from schoolboys who are assumed not to know French and cannot explore the original for themselves. There is a rather good copy of the La Tour portrait for frontispiece.

'Cavalieri Moderni' (Rome: E. Voghera) is the first of a series of novels in which Signora Fanny Zampini Salazar, the able advocate of women's rights, proposes to depict Italian society with all its variety of types. Our authoress is inclined to divide people into two classes, those who hold a high ideal of service to mankind, and those who live merely to satisfy their selfish impulses. In this volume her purpose is to point out the inadequacy of the present state of the law with regard to illegitimate offspring, and all the complications ensuing from the impossibility of divorce. Her pictures of Italian society are extremely realistic, and must on that account interest foreigners more than her own people. Her society ladies, with their love of political talk and their incompetence to control the flirtations of their daughters; her politicians, with their habit of finding out any flaw in the character of an adversary zealous for reform, and using trumped-up accusations to ruin a political career, are very true to what we know of Roman life, as also the dishonest lawyers and the calumnious allegations the women circulate about those of their own sex living without the protection of a husband. As a work of fiction, the book lacks form; it is too diffuse and contains too many episodes. The two principal female figures round which the action centres both die tragically; no doubt the remaining characters are intended to continue through succeeding volumes, as also the hero, the chivalrous doctor who is thoroughly imbued with Mazzinian principles, and whose aims are singularly high, although his conduct is not beyond reproach. Signora Salazar seems chiefly desirous of showing Italian life as it is without concealing its crudities; her aim is to instruct rather than to please, and to point out clearly where reform is needed.

We have received Dr. Samuel A. Green's genial Historical Address at the 250th anniversary celebration of the settlement of the town of Groton, Mass., on the 12th of last July. It opens with a tribute to the late George S. Boutwell, Groton's first citizen; passes to the circumstances of the town's incorporation, the effect upon it of the change of boundaries between Massachusetts and New Hampshire, to Groton in Suffolk, England, to the several towns bearing the name in this country and always pronouncing it Graw-ton. Most of these places—there are four in New England—Dr. Green has visited. An appendix is made up of a discussion of the meaning of Groton, and of extracts from the town records, not hitherto printed, pertaining to the bicentennial celebration in 1855; lists of Indian words, etc., etc.

Significant in the *Harvard Graduates' Magazine* for September are the recorded alumni Teachers' Fund of $2,500,000, the Walter Channing Cabot Fund of $50,000 for the same purpose, and the Class of 1880 Fund of $100,000 for general purposes in the discretion of the authorities. These will be sure to breed like benefactions. Among the numerous illustrations are a portrait of Secretary Bonaparte, the new Lowell bust affixed to Massachusetts Hall, and one of the late Prof. George Martin Lane—both, apparently, satisfactory memorials of their eminent subjects.

The twenty-third annual report of the Dante Society (Cambridge, Mass.) is extremely brief, and its most interesting item is the fact that no essays were offered for the Dante Prize last year. There have been similar hiatuses, but the chain 1900, 1901, 1902, 1903 seemed to promise a greater continuity. The "accompanying paper" consists of Mr. W. C. Lane's list of the notably extensive additions to the Dante Collection in the Harvard College Library.

The Société d'Économie Sociale, founded by Frédéric Le Play in 1856, purposes celebrating next year, not only its jubilee, but the centenary of its founder, who was born in 1806. It now offers a prize of a thousand francs for an *éloge* of Le Play, neither purely academic nor in the nature of a profound study. Anonymous memoirs must be in the hands of the Society's secretary at No. 54 Rue de Seine not later than April 30, 1906. The successful one will be published as a book.

The secretary of the Austrian Archæological Institute, Dr. Heberdey, has just made a full report of the researches which have been carried on at Ephesus. According to his account, the diggings have been very successful, having been chiefly directed to laying bare the remnants of the great library building that was discovered a year ago. A wide staircase leads up to a two-story façade, richly ornamented, and three doors open into the library proper. In the middle stands a colossal statue of Athena. The walls and floors are adorned with parti-colored marbles. Beneath the stairs is found a sepulchral vault, finely arched, with relief decorations on all sides. Inscriptions give the leading data in the history of the structure. The father of the founder, Julius Celsus Ptolemæus, who, in 106 A. D., was proconsul of Asia, and in whose honor the library was built, is buried here. The head of his portrait statue was found in good preservation.

It has been officially announced that Prof. Adolf Harnack will, at the beginning of October, become chief librarian of the Royal Library in Berlin. He retains his professorship in the University, but most of his courses will be delivered by a new professor, yet to be called. The *Vossische Zeitung* states that this is a return to the former days, when the control of the Royal Library was in the hands of a savant of international reputation, pointing as examples to the historian Wilken, then to Pertz and later to Lipsius, all of whom were full professors at the University. It is openly stated that this innovation was caused chiefly by the dissatisfaction of the Royal Academy of Science in Berlin with the management of the present librarian, August Wilmanns, who is not a specialist. Harnack has for years been an enthusiastic member of the Academy, and his acceptance of the new position is hailed by the learned world of Germany as the beginning of better things.

The value of negro education has no better evidence than that given by Fourah Bay College at Freetown, Sierra Leone. The first English missionaries to the colony realized the impossibility of evangelizing Africa by European agency, and so in 1827 they established what they termed an African Institution, choosing for its site an old, disused slave-depot. It began with six students, one of whom was the freed slave, Samuel Crowther, Bishop of the Niger, and the first pure-blooded negro admitted to the episcopate of modern Christendom. Its growth was steady, both in the number of pupils and in the character of the teaching. In order to secure the highest standard of scholarship, in 1876 affiliation was made with the University of Durham, and from that time its students have had the Durham examinations, and the successful candidates, a present total of sixty, have received degrees. There are now ordinarily forty students keeping term, drawn mainly from Sierra Leone and Lagos, with a few from the Gold Coast and the West Indies, and are divided into 'Varsity and non-'Varsity men. These latter are the holders of Government scholarships, who are training to become teachers in the elementary schools, and men destined for work as lay missionaries. Of the university students, those holding theological scholarships are in the majority, Fourah Bay being primarily a theological college. The commoners are men studying for the professions, generally law or medicine, and, after completing the arts course, will go to one of the Inns of Court in London or to an English medical school. The number of commoners is steadily increasing, as the local appreciation of a sound education increases and the means of procuring it increases with advancing prosperity. The teaching staff consists of three Europeans and four natives. Cricket is the favorite game of the students.

—Mr. William K. Bixby, of St. Louis, has printed a small edition of some 'Letters from George Washington to Tobias Lear,' and for the first time this correspondence is now available to students. The manuscripts have had a curious history. Passing to a connection of Lear, they were taken by E. W. Stoughton in discharge of a legal fee, and

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remained in his possession until, through his widow, they passed to the late John Fiske, of whose heirs Mr. Bixby purchased them. Richard Rush printed extracts from them, and even gave some of the originals to prominent men of his day; it is probable, therefore, that only a part remained for Stoughton, and that the diaries of Lear, which should be of historical interest, have been lost or scattered. The letters now printed extend from 1790 to 1798, and show Washington in a very amiable light. The servant question met him as he became President, for he brought a selection of his slaves from Mount Vernon, and with them came certain problems of habits and expense difficult to solve. Of his housekeeper he entertained suspicions, wondering "how other families on 25 hd. or 3000 dollars should be enabled to entertain more Company at least more frequently than I could do for twenty-five thousand dollars, annually." The necessity of schools for the children dependent upon him was also to be met; and his estimate of what was demanded in their education—"respectability" being the most essential—is not the least interesting point in this correspondence.

—On the expenditure of money Washington was particularly keen. He feared lest a school teacher meant to "avail herself of the occasion to commence a new era" in her rates. Lear was to find out the tradesmen who "stand highest for skill and fair dealing." The permanent seat of government on the Potomac received some attention, and he again records his repugnancy to slaveholding. Some miscellaneous papers follow these letters to Lear, and among them are the instructions from Congress to Washington, in 1775, which have been printed before, two letters from Mrs. Washington, and three from Washington to Joseph Jones. So far as the transcript of these letters is concerned, the editor of this volume, William H. Samson, has done well. In some respects the notes might have been improved, and an index is much needed. The editor could have supplied many of the names where initials were employed. For example, on page 33, it was *Powel* who suffered *Smilie* to make false statements in the *Senate*, and *Fisher* was not candid. We note also, on page 52, that Blodget's name is omitted. Mr. Samson believes that the Buchan box was restored to the Earl after Washington's death; but it was really lost on the way. The references to political matters might have been explained in notes, especially the attacks upon Washington for his extravagance in making his house available—attacks in which Gallatin appears to have been the leader. The portraits and facsimiles are well executed, and the volume is worthy of its subject.

—Since the hundredth anniversary of the Marietta colony, seventeen years ago, it has been a barren year that has borne no centennial celebration in Ohio. The little college town of Granville, however, founded by a colony from Granville, Mass., has taken the occasion of its centennial festival to make a really valuable addition to historical and genealogical literature. Among the traditional tales of the village is the story that Alfred Avery, a lad of the first company of settlers, went to the field with his father, in Granville, Mass., to plant corn. As his father was dropping the seed, a glance over his shoulder revealed the boy's eyes brimming with tears. An inquiry for the reason brought the plaintive and significant answer, "I can't find dirt enough to cover the corn." Granville, Mass., and Granby, Conn., just across the line, were teeming with large families of quick-witted "Yankees," and the new State of Ohio had dirt enough to cover the corn. Evidently here is an item on the side of the economic interpreters of history. Granby took the lead, forming the "Scioto Company," and founding in 1803 the town of Worthington, whose disappointed hopes of forming the State capital are not assuaged even by the prospect of an early embrace by the outreaching arms of Columbus, the young upstart which carried off the coveted honor. The Granville emigrants followed two years later, forming the "Licking Land Company," sending out Timothy Rose, Levi Buttles, and Job Case early in the year to locate and purchase lands, organizing in May among the intended emigrants a Congregational church (a hymn of twenty-five stanzas was composed and rendered for this occasion), and arriving on the site of the new town early in November, after forty-four days of actual travel; a complete rest being rigorously observed on each Sabbath. Ox carts and horses were the means of conveyance. The little village thus formed early became an educational centre, and never developed any manufacturing industries to draw in a miscellaneous population. It has thus preserved to an unusual degree the impress of its founders, which adds greatly to its historical importance, especially to students of the influence of the older New England upon the life of the Middle West. The material selected for publication deals quite fully with the early religious, educational, and fraternal life of the town, and includes also several interesting biographical chapters. An autobiographical sketch of the services and sufferings of William Gavit (originally of Westerly, R. I.,) in the Revolution is the piece of chief value in this division. The publication takes the form of an extra number of the *Old Northwest Genealogical Quarterly*, issued in Columbus. It comprises two hundred pages of text, with about one hundred inset illustrations, from maps, old prints, drawings, and photographs.

—In his preface to 'Mirabeau and the French Revolution' (Lippincott), Mr. Charles F. Warwick tells us that his original design was to cast his material into the form of lectures. Though this purpose was abandoned, the book, with its copious use of anecdote and its discursiveness of style, retains some trace of the author's first conception. So far as substance is concerned, Mr. Warwick belongs to the myriad of those who, having been fascinated by the French Revolution, resolve to write about it in a popular and effective way. Fortunately, he has a wider range of reading than is possessed by many of his English and American congeners, but, apart from a certain number of verdicts upon individual characters, his text contains little that is distinctive. On the other hand, it is of much higher quality than most of the illustrations which accompany it. Why such lurid and melodramatic pictures should be used to interpret an historical work, we cannot understand. One is of course on the safest ground when he draws his illustrations from contemporary sources, but there are doubtless valid grounds for an exception to this practice where the artist has made a study of the period and has a sure grasp of leading types. In the present case we see no reason why author and publisher should have admitted the cut on page xi., "The Taxgatherer," "Mirabeau and Marie Antoinette," and "Preparing the Field of Mars for the Festival of the Federation." Were the bulk of the book on a plane with these illustrations we should not single out the latter for special comment; but as many casual readers suffer their impressions to be affected by pictures, we are doing Mr. Warwick bare justice when we say that his volume on Mirabeau should not be judged by the contribution of his illustrator. Moreover, his own style is better than could be inferred from the first sentence, which runs as follows: "The most interesting and fascinating period in the history of modern times is that in France extending from the reign of Louis XIV. to the battle of Waterloo." On page 88 Mirabeau calls Mr. Thomas Watson's 'Story of France' "charming"; but, despite such admiration as is implied by this term, his own use of language is less exaggerated than Mr. Watson's, and his canons of criticism seem to us on the whole to be higher. The book undeniably is amateurish, but Mr. Warwick is saved, by both a genuine love of his subject and a knowledge of leading works on the early Revolution, from writing as most amateurs do when they begin at 1789.

—A recent publication of the Société Nouvelle de Librairie et d'Édition is the monograph of M. A. François entitled 'La Grammaire du Purisme et l'Académie Française au XVIIIe Siècle.' The first chapters describe the part played by the immortal Forty, individually and in a body, in the struggle for the preservation and purification of the French language in the days of Fénelon and Voltaire, their timidity, their idle debates as to what great project best suited their dignity, their complete inability to work together at any project. A dictionary they could and did produce; they loved to meet three times a week and dispute the precise meaning of disconnected words. But they wasted at least twenty years in debating whether they should compose a grammar to supplement the famous Dictionary. Meanwhile the French nation waited with pathetic confidence that its great Academy could not go wrong if only it would condescend to produce a Poetic and a Rhetoric whose canons should replace those of Aristotle and Quintilian. But forty purists were not likely to agree, and all their discussion ended in the publication, after many years, of a few commentaries on the French classics of the seventeenth century. The preoccupation of all the grammarians and commentators of the eighteenth century was to stop the degeneration of the French language, to preserve the standard set by a few good authors, chosen mainly from among the poets. Racine was the model; he could nod at times, like Homer, but no writer had so few solecisms. M. François gives an interesting account, interesting at least to specialists in the history of the French tongue, of the wrangles of the purists over usage, the endless conflict between the party which defended the indivi-

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dual taste of a writer and the party which would sanction no expression foreign to the rules of logical grammar. The eighteenth century is the century of the *odium grammaticum*. The chief industry of the French purists was the production of grammatical commentaries, especially on the dramatic poets. They at least encouraged the circulation of the French classics, and the enormous number of reprints of such writers as Boileau and Racine from the presses of Holland and Geneva was mainly due to their critical labors. The Academy as a whole fell into the background, but in the list of works, grammars, and commentaries given by M. François in an appendix one observes that the majority are by Academicians. The monograph contains a résumé of many famous discussions on the differences of prose and poetical style, on what constitutes usage, etc., We conclude with an extract to illustrate how the Immortals in the first quarter of the eighteenth century dealt with the problem of preserving the French language. They decided to discuss the phrase *si j'étois que de vous, je ferais telle chose*. Their president settled the question by an anecdote. He had once overheard the Duc de Créquy say to the Maréchal de Clérambault, "Monsieur le Maréchal, si j'étois que de vous, je m'irais pendre tout à l'heure." "Hé bien," replied the Maréchal, "soyez que de moi." "Le petit conte fut applaudi," says the report of the Academy, "et puis on décida que dans le discours familier on peut dire *si j'étois que de vous*."

## AUSTRALIAN ABORIGINES.—I.

*The Native Tribes of South-East Australia.* By A. W. Howitt, D.Sc., Honorary Fellow Anthropological Institute of Great Britain and Ireland. Macmillan Co. 1904. Pp. xix, 819.

*The Northern Tribes of Central Australia.* By Baldwin Spencer, M.A., F.R.S., sometime Fellow of Lincoln College, Oxford, Professor of Biology in the University of Melbourne, and F. J. Gillen, Special Magistrate and Sub-protector of Aborigines, South Australia. Macmillan Co. 1904. Pp. xxxv, 784.

*L'Origine des Pouvoirs Magiques dans les Sociétés Australiennes.* Par M. Mauss, maître de conférences pour l'histoire des religions des peuples non civilisés. (École Pratique des Hautes Études. Section des Sciences Religieuses.) Paris: Imprimerie Nationale. 1905. Pp. 55.

For the anthropologist and the student of primitive man, the Australian blacks are as interesting and as important as are the Australian whites for the investigator of modern social and political institutions. On the one hand, we are told that the Anglo-Saxon race in the island-continent is blazing the future paths for all mankind, and, on the other, that it was in that part of the world that appeared, in the dim past, the first creature deserving the name of man, the ancestor of all human races now existing, or having at any time before existed. At the present moment the scientific air is full of debate concerning the recent discoveries of traces of "fossil" man in Australia and the theories of the evolution of the first human beings in the characteristic environment of the great Indo-Pacific wilderness put forth by Schoetensack, Klaatsch, etc. Thus the aborigines may have been the Alpha, as the Aryan immigrants may be the Omega, of our race. There was a time, however, when the white man believed in killing off as soon as possible the black people who occupied the land before him—a policy resulting in the utter extermination of the native Tasmanians, who, according to Mr. Howitt and others, were the real autochthones of Australia. Fortunately this hunting of men came to an end, and now some of the ablest investigators of the day are studying the scattered tribes of aborigines who remain, with a zeal and a thoroughness comparable only to the labors of the experts of our own Bureau of American Ethnology, who have accumulated so much valuable and lasting knowledge concerning the history and the achievements of the first Americans.

The materials for Mr. Howitt's book were, in great part, collected and recorded before 1889, since when "the native tribes have more or less died, and in the older settlements of South-East Australia the tribal remnants have now almost lost the knowledge of the beliefs and customs of their fathers" (a new factor in their extinction has also been added in opium, introduced among them by the Chinese coolies and their employers). The data obtained by the author, often in conjunction with his colleague in other studies of the Australian natives, Mr. Fison, during forty years of varied experience, have, however, been revised and the discussions amplified, so that 'The Native Tribes of South-East Australia' may be taken as a summary of his investigations and conclusions reached after mature consideration and comparison with the works and theories of other ethnologists. After an introductory chapter on the origin of the aborigines of Tasmania and Australia, Mr. Howitt considers successively tribal and social organization, relationship, terms, marriage rules, tribal government, medicine-men and magic, beliefs and burial practices, initiation ceremonies (eastern and western types), messengers and message-sticks, barter and trade centres, gesture language, various customs. An appendix (pp. 779-806) gives the English texts of some legends of Central Australian tribes.

That Australia is an environment *sui generis* has long been recognized by the anthropologist. In a way it is an ethnic *cul de sac*, like the continent of America—the New Guinea approach in the one case might be compared with the Bering Straits approach in the other; and one is as justified in rejecting the theory of the development of Australian institutions and culture by the advent of Malay or other sub-Asiatic peoples as one is in refusing to attribute the civilizations of primitive America to Chinese, Japanese, or other Mongolian immigrants. In the languages of Australia, too, there is no more a serious Malay element than there is a Mongolian one in the tongues of the American Indians. The facts in both environments point to the evolution of culture through indigenous stimuli and influences native to the soil. Such a productive evolutionary factor may very well be found, as the author suggests, in the more or less intentional changes brought about by the "elders," or "great men," and the old men and women, who are the sources of authority, the teachers and the philosophers of the land. Mr. Howitt even goes further, and sees in "commands" received by medicine-men in dreams, from so-called supernatural beings, or otherwise, the possible origins of social reforms and readjustments. Such a "command" or "idea" would be announced by the recipient to his fellow-shamans, and, "if they received it favorably, the next step might be to announce it to the assembled headmen at one of the ceremonial gatherings as a supernatural command, and this would be accepted as true without question by the tribes-people." This "dream-origin" theory receives support from kindred phenomena among the American Indians, although there, perhaps, the effects relate more to the individual than to society as a whole; but the transfer would not be beyond the mentality of the Australians, who have a certain "social sense" useful for survival purposes. In Australia, as in America, the theory of indigenous modification would account for the differences in culture, institutions, mythological ideas, etc., existing among various tribes. Favorable circumstances, suggestible conditions among the members of several tribes, the great personal influence (as with our own race) of the "reformer" himself or his associate shamans (the "being in the air" also is not entirely confined to the civilized races of to-day, nor the things that make possible the sudden spread of fads and fashions), severally or in combination, worked to extend the sphere of activity of the innovation.

There is much to be said in favor of this theory of the transformation of primitive society through the genial actions of its "great men." Even the general rule that "all Australian tribes are divided into two moieties, which intermarry, but each of which is forbidden to marry within itself," is thought to have arisen in the manner just noted. Of course, there are objections to such a theory, and, as Andrew Lang observes, *c'est le premier pas qui coûte*. Mr. Howitt, in discussing the supernatural beings of the Australian natives, including the famous "All-Father" (the *Baiame* of the Kamilaroi and his congeners among other tribes), who is neither God, nor "Great Spirit," nor "Good Spirit," but a supernatural being with no trace of a divine nature, an ideal headman dominated "father," comparable, and, again, not comparable, with the *Atius Tirawa* of the Pawnee Indians, as revealed to us by Miss Fletcher and Dr. Dorsey, suggests how easy it might have been for the aborigines, under favorable conditions, to develop an actual religion based on the worship of a being like *Baiame*. The material presented in the books of Mr. Howitt and Messrs. Spencer and Gillen impresses the reader also with the reasonableness of another suggestion of the author, viz., how easily, after the change to a recognized religion, the medicine-men would have become priests. But many possible changes have not at all taken place, for the Australian natives did not even evolve ancestor-worship, which so many authorities have considered the root of primitive religion. Some steps assumed are, evidently, easier in theory than in actual progress.

It is worth noting that the greatest development of the "All-Father" idea occurs in the southeast, where also is to be found the most marked progress away from primitive

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social organization, etc. Indeed, the evidence of such advancement increases from north to south. Mr. Howitt agrees with Messrs. Spencer and Gillen in holding that, while totemism, combined with exogamy, is at the root of the social organization, "the relation between totemism and exogamy is merely a secondary feature, the primary function of the former having probably been in existence before the latter became established." The Intichiuma ceremonies are thought to represent a very early form of totemistic beliefs (this is by no means absolutely certain, however), but the author considers that present data do not permit dogmatism as to their origin. There is yet no safe hypothesis as to the provenience of totemic names. The suggestion is made that the idea of relationship with animals and plants may have had a dream-origin with savage peoples. The low state of culture of the Dieri, as compared with certain other tribes who inhabited the southeast (particularly the coast lands), leads Mr. Howitt to argue that better climatic conditions and a more abundant and constant supply of both animal and plant food may have caused some of the latter to abandon more or less "the magical food-producing ceremonies." Thus, in many ways the tribes of the Lake Eyre district in South Australia would represent a much more primitive social and psychical condition than those of the southeastern end of the island. This would fit in with some of the assumptions of the Schoetensack theory of the origin of man in Australia.

The variation in primitive Australian social systems may be further seen by comparing some of the tribes having very complicated marriage and totemic systems with the Kurnai, who "had no class systems," and "although there are survivals of totems in this tribe, they do not affect marriage." The comparison made (p. 294) between the position of the bride among the early Anglo-Saxons and the Australian natives is interesting; likewise the hint that, at a still earlier stage, the bride-price may very well have been another woman. An ingenious use of polygamy as a means of building up influence by presentation of wives to those who are too poor to obtain them themselves, is recorded on page 266. A curious instance of the manner in which the culture of an intruding race affects that of the aborigines is cited (p. 423) by Mr. Howitt: In one of the native songs (improvised) occurs the word *winbelow*, which, at first blush, seems aboriginal enough, but is in reality nothing but the English, "the wind blows." The distance travelled by some of these songs is remarkable. Another example of white influence is represented in the Kurnai song inviting a friend to come to "a cool shady place with a bottle." These songs are of not a little psychological and sociological value, but (both old and new) they are said to be fast dying out. With the Australians in general the sky-country is another and better earth. The sun is a woman, as with the ancient Teutons. Sleep and dreams are the bond between the living and the absent, alive or dead. The white man was first conceived of as a ghost—members of the tribe returning in the flesh. In connection with his description of message-sticks, Mr. Howitt states (p. 698) that the system of counting in vogue enables the natives to run up to thirty, thus modifying the common statement that "the Australian aborigines are unable to count beyond four, or, at the most, five." Infanticide is practised among many Australian tribes for a variety of reasons: lack of food, rapid succession of children, weakness, or disease, difficulty of carrying about, etc. Cannibalism is also diverse in origin and practice: with the Dieri, a part of the burial ceremonial; a means of getting rid of superfluous infants; also, of acquiring the power and virtues of dead enemies, etc. "Flesh-hunger" as a cause of anthrophagy is rare here as in most other parts of the globe. Some absurd things credited to the Australians by "bush yarns" and careless observers are dismissed by Mr. Howitt with the remark: "The Australian aborigines do not recognize any divinity, good or evil, nor do they offer any kind of sacrifice, as far as my knowledge goes."

## A SPANISH SCHOLAR.

*Homenaje á D. Francisco Codera* en su jubilación del profesorado: Estudios de erudición oriental. Con una introducción de Eduardo Saavedra. Saragossa, 1904. Pp. xxxviii, 658.

The mere fact that a professor of Arabic has retired from his chair may seen a small matter to our bumptious Western world, in which the university teacher who cannot show an immediate connection between his work and the material aids of life meets with small courtesy of attention. Let the chair and the professor be in Spain (supposedly—by the man in the street—last of the European countries and a bad last), and this bulky volume will be a mysterious problem.

In reality it is no problem, but stands for several excellent facts—that the Spanish people is not at all moribund, that it has resources of vitality and ideals of scholarship and culture which might be sought vainly in many of our colleges and universities; that this professor has made his mark so deeply and well that he has founded a school of pupils; that these rise up now to do him honor; that even Western students and institutions might learn from the austere frugality of his life, the patient finish and endurance of his labors, the breadth of his interests and the ingenuity of his methods.

Codera was born in 1836 of a family of well-to-do farmers at Fonz, a village of Aragon, some thirty miles northwest of Lérida. There and at Barbastro, a larger town in the neighborhood, he had his school education of the usual scholastic type of the time and place. Then, evidently as a promising youth, he was turned towards the priesthood and studied, at a seminary in Lérida, philosophy, which seems to have included physics, taught, however, from a Latin manual a half-century old. In 1855 he passed to the University of Saragossa and there went through a four-year course in theology. He had matriculated for a fifth year when a change long working in him finally came to the surface, and turned him from the priesthood for ever. It is characteristic of the balance and seriousness of Codera's mind that this was no upheaval of doubt; he is still a devout Catholic. It was, to all appearance, his generations of canny Aragonian farming ancestors beginning to tell. When he was sent to school at Barbastro, he was boarded with a carpenter, and there, for three years, found that his academic tasks left him much time on his hands. He took refuge in the workshop, not to lounge and talk; he learned carpentry thoroughly. At Lérida he went on to work by himself at algebra, geometry, and plane designing. He supplemented also the fifty-year old Latin manual of physics by a more modern text-book which he bought for himself. The physical sciences had now captured him; so Saragossa attracted him, where he hoped to be able to combine a theological course with one in the faculty of sciences. Of that he had only two years, for in 1858, just after he had been appointed to instruct in physics and geography, the faculty of sciences was suppressed. Then, theology alone not being enough for him, he combined with it a course in humane letters for two years. In the third, he found that the class hours of theology and letters would by no means agree, and was stopped at last in his effort to enrich, by this process of doubling, the theological curriculum. In all this it is very plain that he would have been kept by the Church if the system of education for priests had not been dry and one-sided to a degree. So theology finally went by the board, and he combined with letters a year of law. Yet it is to be remembered that in this case he could easily salve his conscience by regarding law—and especially canon law—as a necessary part of a theological training.

A year of ill-health not unnaturally followed these combinations and permutations. He devoted it to modern languages. His last years of university study were spent in philosophy, letters, and law at Madrid. Then he was called to the chair of Latin and Greek in his old seminary at Lérida, and his teaching career began. From there he passed to become professor extraordinarius (*catedrático supernúmerario*) of Greek, Hebrew and Arabic, at Granada, then to the ordinarius chair of Greek there and at Saragossa, and finally in 1874 to the chair of Arabic at Madrid, where his life-work really began. The record of these changes is significant in one way and another for the man, his studies, and his environment. Few fields of learning have suffered so much as has Arabic from those who climb up some other way instead of entering by the strait way of early and dry discipline. Codera picked up his Arabic by himself through his Hebrew, with the assistance of the excellent but woefully antiquated Erpenius, and only in his last years as a student in Madrid had he the advantage of definite training. There he was "made" by Pascual de Gayangos, *clarum et venerable nomen*, and by that making and his own character escaped the snares of the amateur. In return, he has created the present school of Spanish Arabists, to whom we have evidently to look for the leading back, so sorely needed, of these studies from grammars and lexicons and words to history, philosophy, theology and all the essence of life. Not for nothing did Codera come of a race of farmers with eyes and thoughts on the hardest realities. And a farmer and student of mechanics and natural science he has remained through it all. When he was editing his texts and setting up the types with his own hands, he was also inventing

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ploughs and harrows suited to the conditions of his native soil, and teaching the alternation of crops and the use of phosphates, the sinking of wells, and the introduction of new plants. Similarly with his type-setting and the machine he invented to take impressions of coins; when a thing was to be done, he did it himself. His intense practicalness and self-helpfulness must make us revise our traditional estimate of the stately but unhandy Spaniard.

And all this time, Spain was in storm and stress around him. In his first four years fell the end of the Carlist rising; a couple of months after he was born, the regent Christina was compelled to accept the Constitution of 1812. Thereafter it is a record of a succession of revolutions, attempted and successful. His student life was passed in the unsavory times of Isabella II., his early activity as a university teacher in the anarchy and civil war which followed; the final flight of Don Carlos was less than two years after he began work at Madrid. The external history of a country is not all; behind drums and tramplings and constitutions and politicians, the life of the people goes on. It was in that life behind that he had part. For him, Spain was served best by the man who did with all his might what his hand found to do, who raised better and better crops, or taught his little circle silently what work meant, and what true culture, knowledge, rectitude, impartiality were.

The bibliography of Codera's writings covers nearly ten pages, but his patience and method are better evinced in the plan he has sketched for the writing of the history of Muslim Spain. For that, he declares with right, we are not yet nearly ready—shall be ready only after fifteen or twenty well-employed years. Very many texts are still to be published, and to be studied; with every new text, so far, have come changes and corrections. To exhaust these, his method is that of the card-catalogue. He has himself made more than 30,000 slips in biography, geography, bibliography, events, customs; and reckons at 200,000 the minimum necessary to serve as a basis for the complete history.

In this volume itself the outstanding fact is that it is so largely Spanish in origin, and that so marked a proportion of the papers are by direct pupils of the master to whom it is dedicated. It is unfortunate but true that the intercourse between the Spanish school and Arabists elsewhere is not as complete as between the speakers of English, French, and German, the three required languages. The difficulty is linguistic, and Spanish has not yet won its place. Here only five tongues are represented. Twenty-six papers are in Spanish, one by a German; eight in French, three by a Dutchman, a Dane, an Egyptian; two in Italian; one in English by an American; one in Portuguese. Among them are many of value and interest even for others than Spaniards or Arabists. Prof. José Alemany touches a fertile subject for all students of mediæval Europe in describing the bands of Christian free-lances who served Muslim Sultans in North Africa. In a long paper he traces their histories, and brings out the fact of the broad spirit of toleration shown by these sultans and the spirit of harmony which existed in some cases between them and Christian nations—all this in striking contrast to Eastern Islam. English readers will remember the adventures of Chaucer's Knight. To students of history another paper of interest is that of Prof. Rafael Altamira on the sociological study of civilization, its nature and forms, which Ibn Khaldun, the Arabic fourteenth-century historian, has given in his 'Prolegomena.' Similarly, a short paper by Professor de Goeje on the Greek fire. The influence of Christian art on the Moors of Granada is treated by Professor Gómez-Mareno with learning and detail. In philosophy two papers stand out, one by Prof. Asin y Palacios, a searching investigation, in sixty pages, of the relation between the views of Averroes, Thomas Aquinas and the Latin Averroists, especially Siger of Brabant; the other, by Professor Mehren, on Avicenna's attitude towards astrology. On literature there are also two papers which deserve notice. One, by Menéndez y Pelayo, perhaps the most broadly famous name among all the contributors, is on the story of "La Doncella Teodor" as it is in the 'Arabian Nights' (there she is Tawaddud), in a Spanish "Volksbuch," and in a comedy by Lope de Vega. Lope makes diverting enough use of the learned damsel and the show she makes of her acquirements, but if she could only have fallen into the contemporary hands of Shakspere and been examined solemnly like Malvolio by one of his clowns! The other is more puzzling and raises even wider questions. It is the tale (*recontamiento*) of Almicded and Almayesa, two Arab lovers, supposed contemporaries of the Prophet, who live amid Spanish scenery after the fashion of Spanish romances of chivalry, and whose adventures are recounted in Aragonese, though written in the Arabic character. The editor, S. Mariano de Pano, thinks that this form of the story belongs to the sixteenth century, but the very curious mixture in it of an evidently genuine tale of a Muslim champion with chivalric trappings of a knight-errant and his love cannot but raise questions as to earlier Arabic influence on the Spanish romances as a whole; a far more possible thing than the often alleged influence on the Spanish ballads.

The other papers have all their own value, but are more for the Arabist and historian than for the scholar at large. The volume as a whole is a most significant tribute to the inspiration of a master and to the spirit of the new Spain.

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*The Principles of Economics*: A Fragment of a Treatise on the Industrial Mechanism of Society (with other papers). By W. Stanley Jevons. Edited by Henry Higgs. The Macmillan Co. 1905.

Since the untimely death of Stanley Jevons in 1882, several volumes of his literary remains have been given to the public. Economic science, particularly in Great Britain, could so poorly afford to lose him that there was abundant justification for bringing out such collected papers as were contained in the 'Methods of Social Reform' (1883) and 'Investigations in Currency and Finance' (1884). His 'Letters and Journal' (1886), also, possessed more than an ephemeral or merely personal interest, and seemed to bring to a fitting close the series of posthumous publications. It appears, however, that Jevons's manuscripts contained further material in the shape of an unfinished treatise, 'Principles of Economics,' which is now brought out under the competent editorial direction of Mr. Henry Higgs.

In fact, the 'Principles' was intended by Jevons to be his *magnum opus*, "the completion of a thirty or thirty-five years' work." He proposed to pay particular attention to the subject of consumption, but had planned an elaborate book which would have included all the topics handled by the ordinary treatise. The most significant feature of the projected work is the entire disappearance of the mathematical apparatus so prominent in the earlier 'Theory of Political Economy.' One who recalls how earnestly Jevons argued in the 'Theory' that "Economics, if it is to be a science at all, must be a mathematical science," and that "we cannot have a true theory of Economics" without the aid of the calculus, will wonder not a little at the absence of our old friends (or enemies) $\Delta x$ and $\Delta y$. The explanation seems to be, as Mr. Higgs remarks, that Jevons, like Cournot before him, observing that even such economists as Cairnes had been unable to read the 'Theory,' felt obliged 'to follow up his mathematical treatise by a volume written in plain language for the general reader."

Unfortunately, the new treatise was left in very unfinished condition. Of the seventy-two chapters which Jevons had outlined, only twenty were so far completed that the most pious editorial labors could put them into form suitable for publication; and, even of these, not a few are painfully fragmentary. The opening chapters of the 'Principles' were intended to deal with the subjects of consumption and value. A dozen or more chapters upon production and several upon distribution were to follow; and, finally, there were to be a large number dealing with miscellaneous topics, such as money, banking, insurance, foreign trade, taxation, socialism, and the like. The proposed scheme is decidedly peculiar throughout, evidencing rather dislike for the traditional divisions of economic treatises than ability to improve upon them. Naturally enough, the first chapters in order of arrangement had approached completion more nearly than the later, and the result is that the materials selected for publication belong to the first half of the book and deal with the subjects of consumption, value, and production.

As Mr. Higgs is obliged to concede, it may be doubted "whether the fragment now printed contained anything absolutely new at the time it was written," although the author's point of view was sometimes novel. The work contains some interesting discussions of definitions, as of value, supply and demand, labor, and the like. Then there are frequent criticisms of Smith, Ricardo, Mill, Cairnes, and other celebrities, which sometimes are worth while. On page 55, for instance, Jevons takes advantage of the opportunity to reply to the objections which Cairnes had brought against the final-utility theory of value. Moreover, he deals to a much larger extent than was possible in the 'Theory of Political Economy' with the general literature of the science, exhibiting the considerable knowledge he was known to possess of the earlier French and English writers. There is enough here to whet one's appetite for

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more, and to indicate that the author would have wrought out a treatise of the first rank had his life been spared; but it cannot be said that the fragments now published offer anything of great value. We have here not an unfinished torso, but hardly more than a few *disjecta membra*.

The most interesting chapter is probably that dealing with the "Classification of Trades." Jevons tells us that his own economic studies really began with an attempt in 1856 and 1857 to analyze the trade statistics which Dr. Farr had collected in 1851. Students of occupation statistics will find some useful hints here, and it is much to be regretted that the author did not push this part of his work to completion. Another suggestive chapter is that devoted to insurance, in which the friendly societies and the mutual-benefit work of the trade unions are handled with great insight. Interesting, too, is the chapter entitled "Mill on Capital," in which the celebrated "fundamental propositions" are handled somewhat roughly. Jevons's originality and freshness of treatment are everywhere in evidence, yet economic science would not have been appreciably poorer if the unfinished manuscript had never found editor or publisher.

Besides the 'Principles of Economics,' the present volume contains four essays which had been published before the author's death. Two of these, which treat of "The Future of Political Economy" and "Richard Cantillon," appeared in the *Fortnightly* and the *Contemporary*, and are tolerably familiar to American students, although the English editor informs us that they are "not now to be obtained without great difficulty." The others are less known and deserve a moment's consideration. One of them, written in 1869, deals with the "Pressure of Taxation," and contains an able argument for the repeal of the "shilling duty" on corn. The second, upon Lowe's proposed match tax, is a valuable discussion of general principles of taxation in their application to a particular problem. In both cases, Jevons is seen at his best, and it is fortunate that the papers are now made accessible to American students of taxation.

In conclusion it should be said that Mr. Higgs has performed his editorial labors in an admirable manner. Besides an introduction which says just enough, and does not offend a reasonably intelligent and well-informed reader, he contributes numerous helpful footnotes to the text of the "Principles," in which he endeavors to give page references to all the works consulted by Jevons in his very extensive reading. Withal, he labors under no illusions as to the value of the fragmentary treatise he is giving to the world. Among nineteenth-century economists Jevons will always occupy a high place; but the present volume, while increasing our regret that his life work was unfinished, cannot add much to his reputation.

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*The Eagle's History of Poughkeepsie* from the Earliest Settlements (1683-1905). By Edmund Platt. Poughkeepsie, N. Y.: Platt & Platt. 1905. 4to, pp. 328.

The compiler's preface, and his discussion of the origin and meaning of the Indian place-name, Poughkeepsie, evince qualities of independent research, industry, and English style, which take this work out of the ordinary category of newspaper town histories. Not that it has not some things in common with these, in its miscellany and in such celebration of local business and its prominent conductors as borders on advertisement. One can learn much even by glancing through these pages, and the portions relating to the Revolutionary era and the period ushering in the panic of 1837 are novel and valuable. Division into chapters is marked in two cases by panics, not without reason, since that of 1837 was followed by the building of the Hudson River Railroad, and that of 1873 by the construction of the great bridge over the Hudson. There had been a Female Seminary in 1834; in 1865 Vassar College was opened. These are the landmarks in the city's history.

Her greatest personage, after Gov. Clinton, might be thought Egbert Benson, though he was a native of New York. From 1777, when Poughkeepsie was the State Capital, he was State Attorney, received into his office there as law student the future Chancellor Kent, and was first on the list of those who availed themselves (November, 1790), of an act passed February 22, 1788 (birthday of George Washington, the future abolitionist), to manumit slaves. This list is given in full by Mr. Platt. His presumable ancestor, Judge Zephaniah Platt, stood third on the list, and his application for a certificate began: "Agreeably to the Republican Spirit of the constitution of our country." At Poughkeepsie were passed New York's acts for the gradual emancipation of slavery (March 29, 1799; April 8, 1801). Dutchess County's representative in Congress, James Tallmadge, jr., offered the anti-slavery amendment to the enabling act for the admission of Missouri, which precipitated the great debate of 1819-20, and immediately (February 16) was forced to meet threats of personal violence and of disunion, which he did with spirit and fire:

"Sir," he declared, "if a dissolution of the Union must take place, let it be so! If civil war, which gentlemen so threaten, must come, let it come! . . . I know the will of my constituents, and, regardless of consequences, I will avow it; as their representative I will proclaim their hatred of slavery; as their representative here I will hold my stand until this floor, with the constitution of my country which supports it, shall sink beneath me."

Two frigates were built at Poughkeepsie during the Revolution, but never accomplished anything. In the thirties, the town had its whaling company. It is to-day the scene of college boat races. Of late, education has made it more famous than any other character; and to the now extinct brewing industry of Matthew Vassar it owes the first female college in the country meriting the name.

Among the numerous illustrations are some of Benson J. Lossing's woodcuts, a pleasant reminder of the Bewick school.

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*The Cities of Umbria.* By Edward Hutton. With 20 illustrations in color by A. Pisa, and 12 other illustrations. London: Methuen & Co. 1905. Pp. xvi., 303.

In his 'The Road in Tuscany,' Mr. Hewlett asserts that "the moment travelling by road ceased, the writing of good books of travel ceased also"; and therefore he urges his reader to shun the railway, "with its intolerable apparatus of iron, smoke, and noise," and to take a carriage. Mr. Hutton's counsel is one of even greater perfection, for his is Jean-Jacques Rousseau's way: he has travelled Umbria afoot, with his knapsack on his back, now wet to the skin by a sudden shower, and going to bed at a wayside inn while the landlord dries his clothes, now sleeping in a barn amidst the hay, now begging a lift from the driver of a country wine-cart, and ever fleeing from "that mighty army of martyrs who are led about Italy by Baedeker."

It is, however, only in their dislike of the tourist and the railway that Mr. Hewlett and Mr. Hutton are akin. Mr. Hewlett always prefers "a road to a church, and a man to a masterpiece, a singer to his song." "Æsthetic, archæology, ecclesiology, hagiology," must mean nothing to his client, and he bids him "let *technique* and all such frippery be far from him." The proper study of mankind is man, and the modern man is but a development of the mediæval. Mr. Hutton, on the other hand, hates everything which is modern. "This is an age of business men, an age of grocers and clerks, and I have yet to learn that such have given us anything worth having." London and New York are "contented in the desperate mediocrity with that part of life which, since they never see the sun, is scarcely worth having at all." Umbria, it is true, is "a country still blessedly poor," and the Umbrian peasant is "still noble"; but, even so, he interests our author little. The hills, the olive trees, the cool streams, the sun-satiate air—God's world, not man's—is what he fain would see. He lives in the past, with St. Francis and St. Clare and the great painters who eternized and glorified them. Umbria for him is *Umbria Mystica*. A Roman of the Romans, he denounces the "barbarism" of the Reformation, and bewails the falling off of Northern Europe from the ancient faith:

"Rome," he cries, "led me to the embrace of Christ and showed me the beauty of the world. What were my England whom she found naked and a child, without her, and all the splendid years, the dreams, the victories? The kings of the world have knelt to do her reverence, and the peoples have flocked to kiss her stones. As a beautiful and splendid empress she has scorned the byeways of life, her progress has ever been along the fair imperial way. She has turned from Life and Pleasure and Beauty neither for the cursing of peasants nor for the brutal threats of the Teutonic barbarian. When our hand was in hers how happy were we—how fair our country, how merry our people; and now that we have parted from her for the moment, with what distraction do we regard one another. One by one the fair and beautiful things have fallen away, the merry days no longer come, and Christ, once so gentle and so fair, is not any more divine, but from very far off demands a sober and sombre world, bereft alike of beauty and of pleasure, since the way is so difficult, our enthusiasm so narrow."

That is the keynote of the book, and it is easy for such a writer to accept the miracle of Bolsena and the stigmatization of St. Francis. Of the latter he says that it is "as certain as any other fact of history, and far better attested than most." Quite naturally, therefore, he falls foul of "that Protestant Frenchman who has made his fame out of this saint of the Catholic

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Church"; and, although he admits that St. Francis accused the Church of "a kind of compromise, not with evil, perhaps, but with indifference," and that she "destroyed" both him and Joachim di Flore, because "the victory of either meant not only her own destruction, but the loss of order, of certain success," yet he none the less complains of M. Sabatier for converting St. Francis "into a kind of divine schismatic, an amiable Martin Luther—at least in his intention—accusing the Church (rather by his conduct, it would seem, than by his teaching) of the betrayal of mankind into a kind of slavery from which he, the little poor man, would set it free." Yet surely the difference is mainly one of words. Even granting that Mr. Hutton's version of M. Sabatier's position is a fair one (he does not profess to quote him verbatim), it would almost seem that the facts stated by a Protestant only need to be restated by a Romanist, in a slightly different form, to sanctify them and to make them true.

To understand Italy a man should be neither Roman nor Protestant, but pagan; and Mr. Hutton's limitations are the greater if, as we think we may infer from the terms in which he speaks of the Italian Government on page 22, his Romanism is political as well as religious. Thus his book might well have been a failure had he written of any other region save Umbria; but since Umbria is the home of mysticism, it is good that a mystic should write of it, and although Mr. Hutton regards painting as a part of religion or, at least, as an expression of religious feeling, he is none the less a competent and discerning critic, as accurate as he is suggestive. His book is destined to prove an invaluable companion for the tourist he so heartily scorns.

In dealing with a volume devoted to descriptions of scenery, to painting, to hagiology and to mysticism, it seems almost irrelevant to allude to a question which has but little connection with the main object of the book; but it may, perhaps, be permissible to point out that, *pace* Professor Bellucci and "The Journal of the Royal Institute of British Architects," it is by no means so certain, as Mr. Hutton appears to think, that the reconstruction of the stairway on the northern side of the Palazzo Pubblico of Perugia is really a restoration "to the original design." In the opinion of the present writer, the weight of documentary evidence is against that view. This, however, is a very minor matter, and we shall probably wait many a long day for a better book on Umbrian painters and Umbrian saints. Mr. Hutton's work is indeed a pleasant contrast to the rubbish which is so often accepted by publishers, and which apparently passes current with the public. A word of praise must be given to the illustrations, which are an admirable instance of the advance that has been made in the reproduction of color work during the past decade.

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*Socrates.* By Rev. J. T. Forbes. (The World Epoch-Makers.) Scribners. 1905.

This moderate-sized volume is based on original sources and on some of the best recent authorities. While designed, of course, for popular use, it follows the scholarly plan of abundant references in footnotes to sources and author. The introductory chapters, which sketch the political, social, and religious ideals of the period, are purely for the general reader. to orient him and provide an *aperçu* of pre-Socratic thought and philosophy. The great difficulty in painting a correct picture of Socrates is to make allowance for the coloring of Plato and of Xenophon, and to disentangle his personality from that of his biographers; and this puzzle is all but insoluble. Grote thought that it was a tolerably safe procedure to appeal from the idealizing tendency of Plato to the matter-of-fact narrative of Xenophon. But it is now clearly seen that Xenophon is, in his matter-of-fact way, as much of a romancer as Plato, and that the Xenophontean Socrates is, in many passages, simply Xenophon himself discoursing commonplaces characteristic of the somewhat *borné* farmer, and horseman, and military adventurer. The Socrates who proses tediously about gratitude to parents, and about the military art as practised by Greeks and Persians, is certainly not that lofty and astonishing personality which administered an electric shock to the conscience of the youthful Alcibiades. So that the Platonic Socrates, with all the glamour of his power and irony and subtilty, is often likely to be truer than the tamer character outlined by Xenophon.

Mr. Forbes is aware of these perplexities and states them by way of warning, and then proceeds to use the Memorabilia more freely, perhaps, than the work deserves. His discussion of the Daimon or Genius of Socrates—always an alluring topic—is too diffuse, as also of the doctrine that vice springs from ignorance and virtue from knowledge. Both these dissertations savor a little of the pulpit with its *longueurs*. So does the sentence, "The remarkable thing [in the case of Socrates] is not the failure to reach dogmatic certainty (unattainable before Christ)." The fact is, that with Socrates to know what was right was to do it; there was something personal and individual in the origin of his theory of virtue. The Athenians of his time also needed, above all, clear notions of what was right and what was wrong, as is illustrated very neatly by the hazy groping of Euthyphro. With them, too, the appeal to pure reason would go farther than with a modern "camp-meeting." For the camp-meeting and for all of us a morality, steadied by reasoned convictions, and moulded by habit to a harmonious automatism, almost, would be safer than the cry of the emotions and an appeal to transcendental maxims. That was, in great measure, the method of Socrates.

However, Mr. Forbes has the primary qualification of a biographer—a sympathetic admiration of his subject. While his work is conscientious and sufficiently thorough, it is not always interesting, nor do the discussions leave a clean and clear impression. The reader who has finished it may clarify his mind by referring to the luminous and masterly chapters of Gomperz on the same subject.

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*The Law of Interstate Commerce and its Federal Regulation.* By Frederick N. Judson. Chicago: T. H. Flood & Co. 1905.

Mr. Judson's name has been so much before the public recently in connection with an investigation carried on under and brought to an end by Executive authority, that it is unnecessary to remind our readers who he is. He writes with authority on a subject of great and growing importance. The purpose of his book is to present in a compact form the law of interstate commerce as declared by the courts, as enacted by the Legislature, and as administered by the Commerce Commission. It embodies the rules and decisions of the Commission—a body of administrative law which has some value as bearing on the "transportation problem"—but the more important part of the treatise is occupied with the consideration of the very difficult fundamental principles of law, constitutional and municipal, underlying our system. It is not at all a clear or easily comprehensible body of law, as every lawyer knows who has followed the current of decision from the great opinion of Marshall in *Gibbons v. Ogden*, down to the *Trans-Missouri* and *Northern Securities* cases; but, with the expansion of the powers of Congress, and the more and more emphatic demonstration of the fact that interstate commerce is by its very nature readily brought within the exclusive grasp, or, at any rate, supervision, of Federal authority, it may be simplified as time goes on.

Mr. Judson has a good power of statement, and his volume is a valuable addition to the literature of the subject.

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## BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Allen, Charles Dexter. American Book-Plates. Macmillan. $2.50.
Atkinson, Fred W. The Philippine Islands. Boston: Ginn & Co. $3 net.
Babcock, Maltbie D. The Success of Defeat. Scribners.
Bogie, Artemas M. Comprehensive Bookkeeping. Macmillan Co. 90 cents.
Brace, Benjamin. Sunrise Acres. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Brainerd, Eleanor Hoyt. Concerning Belinda. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.50.
Browne, Mary. The Diary of a Girl in France in 1821. Dutton. $2.50 net.
Brown, G. Baldwin. William Hogarth. Scribners. $1.25 net.
Brown, J. Wood. Italian Architecture. Scribners. $1 net.
Byron's Complete Poetical Works. Edited by Paul Elmer More. Cambridge Edition. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $3.
Capwell, Irene S. Mrs. Alderman Casey. R. F. Fenno & Co.
Cawein, Madison J. The Vale of Tempe. Dutton. $1.50 net.
Clark, Mrs. S. R. Graham. Phyllis Burton. Philadelphia: American Baptist Publication Society. $1 net.
Clarke, William Newton. The Use of the Scriptures in Theology. Scribners. $1 net.
Confessions of Lord Byron. Arranged by W. A. Lewis Beattany. Imported by Scribners. $2.50 net.
Cowles, James L. A General Freight and Passenger Post. Putnams. $1.25.
Crapsey, Algernon S. Religion and Politics. Thomas Whittaker.
Dicey, A. V. Lectures on the Relation between Law and Public Opinion in England. Macmillan Co. $3.
Dickinson, Edward. The Study of the History of Music. Scribners. $2.50 net.
Duff, A. Wilmer. Elementary Experimental Mechanics. Macmillan Co. $1.60.
Dunning, William A. A History of Political Theories from Luther to Montesquieu. Macmillan Co. $2.50.
Early Western Travels. Edited by R. G. Thwaites. Vol. XIX. Cleveland: The Arthur H. Clark Co.
Edmunds, Albert J. Buddhist and Christian Gospels. Chicago: The Open Court Pub. Co.
Emerson, Henry P., and Ida C. Bender. Modern English. Book Two. Macmillan. 60 cents.
Floyd, Silas X. Floyd's Flowers. Chicago: Hertel, Jenkins & Co.
Goldsmith's Deserted Village. Edited by Robert N. Whiteford. Macmillan Co.
Hatch, F. H., and G. S. Corstorphine. The Geology of South Africa. Macmillan Co. $7.
Hayes, Helen. Her Memory Book. Harpers. $2.
Jephson, Lady. Letters to a Débutante. Philadelphia: Lippincott. $1.25 net.
Jocelyn, Lydia A., and Nathan J. Cuffee. Lords of the Soil. Boston: C. M. Clark Pub. Co.
Knowles, Robert E. St. Cuthbert's. Fleming H. Revell Co. $1.50.
Lamb's Essays of Elia. Edited by Helen J. Robins. Macmillan Co.
Marabell, William. Sherman Watterson. Published by the Author.
Marden, Orison S. The Making of a Man. Boston: Lothrop Pub. Co. $1.25.
McLaughlin, Andrew Cunningham. The Confederation and the Constitution. Vol. 10 of the American Nation. Harpers. $2 net.

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Noble, Edward. The Edge of Circumstances. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Petrie, W. M. Flinders. A History of Egypt. Vol. III. Scribners. $2.25.
Ragster, Olga. Chats on Violins. Philadelphia: Lippincott. $1.25 net.
Sanday, William. The Criticism of the Fourth Gospel. Scribners. $1.75 net.
Sidgwick, Henry. Lectures on the Philosophy of Kant. Macmillan Co. $3.25.
Sidney, Margaret. Ben Pepper. Boston: Lothrop Pub. Co. $1.50.
Smeaton, Oliphant. The Story of Edinburgh. Macmillan Co. $2.
Songs and Lyrics from the Dramatists. Scribners. $1.25 net.
Stevenson, Robert L. Edinburgh. Philadelphia: Lippincott.
Taylor, Marie Hansen. On Two Continents. Doubleday, Page & Co. $2.75 net.
Teskey, Adeline M. The Village Artist. Fleming H. Revell Co. $1.
Train, Arthur. McAllister and his Double. Scribners. $1.50.
Waltz, Elizabeth Cherry. The Ancient Landmark. McClure, Phillips & Co.
Ward, H. Marshall. Trees. Vol. III. Macmillan. $1.50.
Ward, H. Snowden. The Canterbury Pilgrimages. Philadelphia: Lippincott. $1.75 net.
Williamson, C. A. and A. M. My Friend the Chauffeur. McClure, Phillips & Co.
Wood, Eugene. Back Home. McClure, Phillips & Co.
Zacher, Albert. Rome as an Art City. Scribners. $1 net.


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